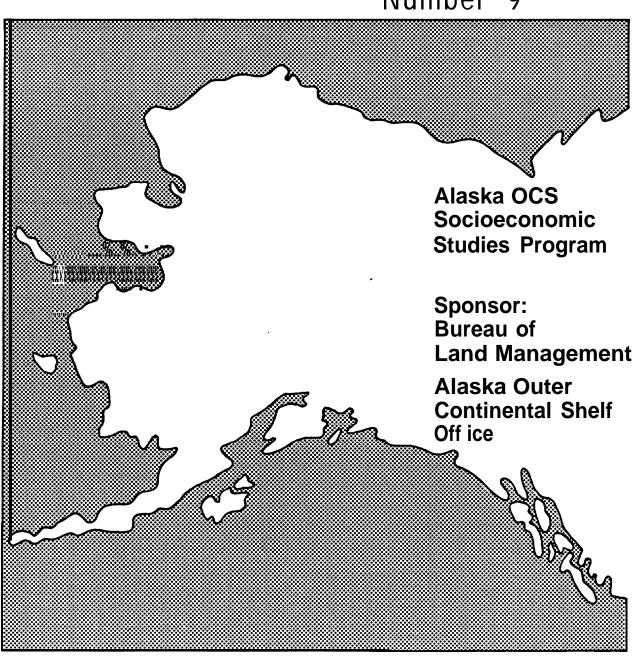


Technical Report Number 9



Beaufort Sea Region **Sociocultural** Systems

FOREWARD

The United States Department of the Interior was designated by the Outer Continental Shelf (OCS) Lands Act of 1953 to carry out the majority of the Act's provisions for administering the mineral leasing and development of offshore areas of the United States under federal jurisdiction. Within the Department, the Bureau of Land Management (BLM) has the responsibility to meet requirements of the National Environmental Policy Act of 1969 (NEPA) as well as other legislation and regulations dealing with the effects of offshore development. In Alaska, unique cultural differences and climatic conditions create a need for developing additional socioeconomic and environmental information to improve OCS decision making at all governmental levels. In fulfillment of its federal responsibilities and with an awareness of these additional information needs, the BLM has initiated several investigative programs, one of which is the Alaska OCS Socioeconomic Studies Program.

The Alaska OCS Socioeconomic Studies Program is a multi-year research effort which attempts to predict and evaluate the effects of Alaska OCS Petroleum Development upon the physical, social, and economic environments within the state. The analysis addresses the differing effects among various geographic units: the State of Alaska as a whole, the several regions within which oil and gas development is likely to take place, and within these regions, the local communities.

The overall research method is multidisciplinary in nature and is based on the preparation of three research components. In the first research component, the internal nature, structure, and essential processes of these various geographic units and interactions among them are documented. In the second research component, alternative sets of assumptions regarding the location, nature and timing of future OCS petroleum development events and related activities are prepared. In the third research component, future oil and gas development events are translated into quantities and forces acting on the various geographic units. The predicted consequences of these events are evaluated in relation to present goals, values, and expectations.

In general, program products are sequentially arranged in accordance with BLM's proposed OCS lease sale schedule, so that information is timely to decision making. In addition to making reports available through the National Technical Information Service, the BLM is providing an information service through the Alaska OCS Office. Inquiries for information should be directed to: Program Director, Socioeconomic Studies Program, Alaska OCS Office, Post Office Box 1159, Anchorage, Alaska, 99510.

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ALASKA OCS SOCIOECONOMIC STUDIES PROGRAM

BEAUFORT SEA REGION SOCIOCULTURAL SYSTEMS

PREPARED FOR

BUREAU OF LAND MANAGEMENT ALASKA OUTER CONTINENTAL SHELF OFFICE

DOCUMENT IS AVAILABLE TO THE PUBLIC THROUGH THE NATIONAL TECHNICAL INFORMATION SERVICE 5285 PORT ROYAL ROAD SPRINGFIELD, VIRGINIA 22161

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ALASKA OCS SOCIOECONOMIC STUDIES PROGRAM BEAUFORT SEA REGION SOCIOCULTURAL SYSTEMS

Prepared by: Worl Associates

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I. I NTRODUCTI ON

The objective of the following report is to promote an understanding of the **sociocultural** dynamics of the **Beaufort** Sea Petroleum Development Region. The report attempts to demonstrate that the social, cultural, and psychological values are as important as the economic values **of** the environment **to** the regional population.

An initial survey of the Arctic Slope may leave the impression that it is a transitional society on its way to complete modernization, However, a closer analysis reveals the persistence of a traditional culture. There has been a growing recognition among social scientists of the systemic viability of transitional systems, those being neither modern nor traditional. The Beaufort Sea Region illustrates how a traditional society reorganized itself with its older social and cultural forms in a modern setting. In an attempt to understand the contemporary society, it has been necessary to analyze the traditional social, economic, and cultural systems, and to assess the impacts and responses by the aboriginal society to the external influences which were exerted by the development activities during the historical period.

The Beaufort Sea Region remained isolated from the influences of a permanent and large non-Native population. During the periods of economic development there was an influx of a non-Native population, but they were temporary residents and tended to remain fairly removed from the indigenous population. They introduced trade items in exchange for

Inupiat participation in the commercial whaling and fur trading ventures. Cash was introduced later in the historical period as the medium of exchange. The principal negative effects resulted from the introduction of diseases, alcohol, and the reduction and near extinction of the caribou and bowhead whale populations. The major long term changes in the traditional culture resulted from the introduction of Western religious, educational, and political institutional forms. In the contemporary period, the Inupiat organized and utilized the dominant political and legal institutions to protect their land rights. The Inupiat's continued relationship to their environment has been viewed as the basis for the persistence of the traditional culture.

II. SOCIOCULTURAL SYSTEMS

Aboriginal Period

INUPLAT: ECOLOGICAL INTERRELATIONSHIPS

Prior to considering the contemporary sociocultural systems of the Beaufort Sea region, it is essential to examine the aboriginal social and cultural organizations which provided the foundation of the present society. Although significant changes have occurred within the social and cultural patterns since initial contact with western influences 150 years ago, recent ethnographic accounts and contentions by the residents themselves about the survival of their traditional society all give evidence of the cultural persistence of the Inupiat. "Inupiat," meaning "People" or "Real People," is the self designated name and is preferred over the name "Eskimo." "Inupiat" or "Inuit," the term used in Canada and Greenland, refer to northern Eskimos in contrast to the southern Eskimos who are known as Yupik.

Although not germane to a description of the aboriginal **sociocultural** systems, a brief and simplistic introduction **to** the origins and cultural evolution of the Inupiat and their inhabitation of the Arctic Slope may provide a key for understanding the adaptations made by the Inupiat during the historical phase.

The Eskimos were the only aboriginal population to occupy both the Old

3

and the New World. They are dispersed from southcentral Alaska, around the Prince William Sound to the Alaska Peninsula, and northeastward along the entire Alaska coast across Canada to Greenland. In addition, Eskimoan populations occupied St. Lawrence Island and the Chukchi Peninsula on the Asiatic side. Related to the Eskimo are the Aleuts who inhabit the southern portion of the Alaska Peninsula and the Aleutian Chain. With the exception of the Caribou Eskimos in the Canadian Barren Grounds and the Alaskan Inland Nunamiut, the Eskimos were generally associated with the coastal and riverine environments, while the inland territories were restricted to Indians. Contrary to popular conception, the Eskimo population cannot be classified as Indian. Serological and morphological evidence indicate they form a class with other northeastern Siberian groups called Arctic or Siberian Mongoloids (Laughlin 1963).

Alaska and Siberia were connected during three periods of the Late Pleistocene, ranging from approximately 90,000 to 10,000 years ago, during which overland travel was possible between the two continents. (Mull er-Beck 1967). It is generally accepted that the ancestors of the Eskimos and Aleuts crossed the Bering Land Bridge during the third period, 13,000 to 10,000 years ago. Archaeological evidence dating from approximately 8,000 B.C. suggests that the tundra dwelling hunters infiltrated Alaska and dispersed along the Canadian Arctic to Greenland, while others migrated south to the Alaska Peninsula and the Aleutian Chain (Bandi 1969; Dumond 1977). The dispersal throughout Alaska and along the coast as the land bridge receded was gradual.

Around 500 B.C. the northern cultures developed a maritime orientation exploiting the rich marine resources of the Bering Strait, The coastal orientation stimulated the development and diversification of other cultural traditions identified with both coastal and inland settings. However, by 1000 A.D. a remarkable development began with the spread from northern Alaska of the Thule Culture, which served to level the cultural differences that existed between the Eskimo. Bandi described the effect, ... a remarkable degree of unification was attained, a dissemination of the Thule culture (or at least elements of it) from the eastern tip of Siberia to the east of Greenland" (Bandi 1969). Dumond elaborates that the expansion of Thule tradition included cultural elements and people or both (Dumond 1977).

Linguistically, the Eskimo population is divided into two mutually unintelligible languages, Yupik and Inupiat or Western and Eastern Eskimo.

While there are marked dialectical differences with Yupik, Inupiat is remarkably homogeneous from Unalakleet in western Alaska to Greenland.

Translators were used during the recent <code>Inuit Circumpolar</code> Conference, which was attended <code>by</code> <code>Inupiat</code> speakers from Alaska, Canada, and Green-? and. After several days of continuous contact, some participants were able to begin conversing directly with one another. <code>While</code> emphasizing the vast span of territory occupied by the <code>Eskimos</code>, the variations in habitat, and the range of cultural diversity, <code>Dumond</code> (1977) noted the uniformity of <code>Eastern Eskimo</code> (<code>Inupiat</code>) speech. He suggested that this may indicate that only a short time has elapsed since the ancestral

speakers formed a single social group. This in all likelihood can be attributed to the expansion of the Thule Culture.

The Beaufort Sea Region, which encompasses the area within the boundaries of the North Slope Borough, is the aboriginal homeland of two distinct but interrelated groups of the Inupiat--the Tagiugmiut and the Nunamiut. The ethnographic literature generally refers to the coastal group as "Tareumiut," however, this is corrected to Tagiugmiut to conform with their own self designated name and the accepted orthography in current usage by the North Slope Inupiat,

The Taġiugmiut were primarily dependent on a marine economy based on the harvest of sea mammals. They are best known for their hunting of the mammoth bowhead whales (Balaena mysticetus). The whaling complex was the focal point of their social and cultural developments. Taġiugmiut permanent settlements ranged along the Chukchi and Beaufort coastal area from Tikigaq (Tigara or Point Hope) to Utqkeavik (Barrow) and Nuvuk (Point Barrow) where the bowhead whales are most accessible.

Although the Taġiugmiut frequented areas eastward of Barrow, the Beaufort coastal area was also utilized by other groups more closely identified with inland groups. The inland zone was occupied by the Nunamiut, whose primary economic pursuit centered around the harvesting of the caribou. Their structural organization paralleled that of their coastal neighbors except that, instead of the whale, the caribou was central to their organization and cultural patterns.

Although the two Inupiat groups represent adaptations to two contrasting ecological zones, they have been characterized as a single cultural unit because of the economic interrelationships between the inland caribou hunter and the coastal whalers and the similarities between their social and cultural system. Larsen and Rainey (1948) and Spencer (1959) suggested that the interrelationship between the two groups was essential to the occupation of the North Slope. According to Larsen and Rainey the caribou skins which the Tagiugmiut obtained in trade from the Nunamiut were necessary for survival in hunting on the ice. On the other hand, the inland Inupiat were dependent on the coastal hunters for seal and whale oil which they exchanged for their furs and skins. The dual economic patterns coupled with the formalized trading system constituted a cultural whole which permitted the successful occupation of an area which has been variously described as barren, inhospitable, and desol ate.

Tagiugmiut

In 1948 Larsen and Rainey suggested incorporating the various phases and cultural developments of Eskimo prehistory along the northern Alaskan coast under one designation, the Arctic Whale Hunting Culture. They proposed to retain the names which had become established, Okvik, Old Bering Sea, Birnirk, Punuk, Thule, and Inugsuk, to designate the cultural phases. For purposes of a general and brief overview, this cultural classification will be adopted since, as Larsen and Rainey pointed out, there were no basic cultural differences between them, The

fundamental elements of the Arctic Whale Hunting Culture, they noted, "are sea mammal hunting with floats in open water, a permanent solidly built winter house with a deep long entrance, pottery or stove lamps, cooking pots, rubbed slate implements, an extensive use of baleen and a knowledge of the sled and bowdrill" (Larsen and Rainey 1948). Central to all the phases was the hunting of the whale; however, hunting caribou during the winter continued. Larsen and Rainey added another period, the Modern Phase, characterized by the introduction of new cultural elements, some arriving from southern areas and others deriving from an Asiatic origin. Iron tools were first obtained through contact with trade from the Chukchi Sea area. However, the most notable feature of this phase was direct contact with white men and the introduction of firearms, (Larsen and Rainey 1948).

Whaling in its present form of planned interception in an open water lead between ice flow, its capture by direct contact from a skin boat, and its towing to shore has been practiced well over a thousand years and perhaps somewhat longer. Giddings found evidence of a maritime culture at Cape Krusenstern which he designated the Old Whaling culture. Radiocarbon evidence suggested a dating from 1700 to 1500 B.C. However, he was not able to demonstrate a direct relationship with previous or subsequent cultures (Giddings 1967).

The northern arctic coast was occupied prior to the Arctic Whaling Culture by a population who, according to Larsen and Rainey, did not engage in whaling but did hunt other marine as well as terrestrial mammals.

They were characterized as seasonal migrants who spent their winters inland and their summers **on** the coast. Larsen and **Rainey** argue that this population, known as the **Ipiutak**, "continued their original mode **of** life and became the ancestors of the modern **Nunatarmiut (Nunamiut)**, while others remained permanently on the coast and adopted the elements of **the** Arctic **Whale** Hunting cultures. ..." (Larsen and **Rainey** 1948),

Territorial Occupation Beaufort/Chukchi Sea. The Tagiugmiut, whose primary subsistence activities were governed by the presence, absence, or conditions of the sea ice, inhabited coastal areas where considerable ice movements occurred. The abundance of marine resources available off the Chukchi was reflected by the presence of numerous settlements of its coast. Situated nearly continuously between Tikigaq (Point Hope) and Nuvuk (Point Barrow) were several major settlements and many smaller satellite colonies. Although many sites were not permanently occupied throughout every season or from one year to the next, the frequency of settlements was indication of a rich resource supply. Charles Brewer, who traveled up the coast from Point Hope to Point Barrow during the late 1800's, recorded numerous small villages in his original manuscripts which formed the basis of a later published book (Brewer 1942).

While the presence of the Taġiugmiut along the Chukchi coast is indicated by the number of permanent and semipermanent settlements, their utilization of the Beaufort Sea coastal area was characterized by the numerous campsites along the shore. Trading centers were also located on the Beaufort Sea cost, usually at the mouth of rivers. Two significant sites were Neqlik (Nirlik) and Uuliktaq (Oliktok), where Taġiugmiut met

and traded with the Nunamiut. Trading was also conducted at Barter Island (Kaktovik] with the Tikixtagmiut who were more closely associated with their Canadian neighbors. Trade was also carried on at Herschel Island on what is now the Canadian side of the Beaufort Sea (Stefansson 1966). The Chukchi Sea and the Alaska side of the Beaufort coastal areas were largely utilized by the Tagiugmiut except for a group of inland people who had a quasi-permanent settlement at the mouth of the Utukok and, as already noted, the Tikixtagmiut at Barter Island. The Nunamiut also ventured to the Beaufort Sea coast to engage primarily in trading activities with their coastal neighbors.

The contrast in Inupiat settlement patterns between the Chukchi and Beaufort Seas corresponds most directly with the availability of marine resources. The difference between the two seas, and the presence of marine life, correlates with contrasting ice environments. A description of contrasting ice conditions as they relate to use and occupancy by the Inupiat is abstracted from the Alaska Regional Profiles, Arctic Region, to describe the complexity and difference.

i-cc. This ice has many forms and extremely variable dynamics, but collectively is the most important single factor of the Alaskan arctic marine environment. Its seasonal formation, movement, and degradation continually influence other physical and biological aspects of the environment, including the hunting activities of the indigenous Inupiat people and resource exploration by modern

technological means. . . Although there is no physical barrier between the two, (Beaufort and Chukchi Seas) there are a number of critical differences. The Chukchi Sea is quite shallow with depths less than 50 fathoms (100 m) extending several hundred miles off-Throughout much of the year relatively warm Alaskan coastal waters and Bering Sea waters enter the Arctic Ocean through Bering Strait and strongly influence the character of the water and the behavior of the sea ice in the Chukchi Sea. In contrast, the Beaufort Sea has a narrow continental shelf between 30 and 60 miles off Alaska where depths of less than 100 fathoms {200 m)", and the water mass is dominated by circulation patterns of the Arctic Ocean . . . The distribution of animals and man along the north coast of Alaska reflect the differences between the two seas. West of Barrow north and east flowing currents in the Chukchi Sea tend to keep the winter sea ice moving and prevent tight ice occupation of the nearshore, environment. In contrast, Beaufort Sea currents force the ice shoreward and produce a great expanse of relatively tight, shorefast ice in winter. Without open areas of water and the resulting edge effect, marine mammal populations are at a much lower level in winter. (**Sel** kregg 1975).

The Beaufort ice environment is characterized by thick, multiyear ice present more than 10 months a year. The Chukchi is dominated by one-year ice which is present seven to eight months a year and is seasona'l in structure and form. The Chukchi Sea coast is generally ice free in the summer, often in contrast to the Beaufort polar pack ice which may be

fort, while considerable ice movement typifies the Chukchi. The ice movement produces large, linear openings in the ice called leads, which influence the biological aspects of the environment. Coincident with the leads are abundant marine resources. The Beaufort, which has relatively few open water leads, is sparsely populated, while the Chukchi with numerous reoccurring leads is more densely occupied (Sel kreag 1975).

Settlement Patterns. As previously noted, the availability of marine natural resources, which is influenced by the conditions of the sea ice, largely determined the location of settlements. The ancestor of the Tagiugmiut depended equally on sea mammals and terrestrial mammals. However, the Tagiugmiut were first oriented towards a coastal economy and secondarily dependent on resources obtained from the inland areas.

The principal characteristic of the Tagiugmiut distinguishing them from their predecessors was their dependence on the bowhead whale. The primary coastal settlements were located at points where bowhead whales passed on their annual migration north each spring. Point Hope was the southern terminus in the arctic region where intensive whaling commenced, and Point Barrow was the most northern.

Spencer (1959) Listed five permanent settlement areas along the Chukchi Sea coast and several smaller satellite communities which were in essence suburb extensions of the larger villages. In addition, there was one major settlement at Barter Island. Associated with the major and smaller settlements were numerous campsites within the boundaries of the settlement group.

Although the Taġiugmiut are generally described as sedentary, living in permanent settlements located along the coast, they established many temporary and seasonal settlements several miles out on the ocean ice, along the Chukchi and Beaufort Sea coast, along the river banks, and in many inland locales. Their territorial occupation extended miles beyond the shores, where campsites were established on the ocean ice. The nature and duration of the camp depended on the economic activity they pursued, which varied from whale, fowl, or caribou hunting, fishing, gathering berries, or trading ventures, These campsites were often visited every season year after year, or new camps might be established. Of course, the location of whaling camps depended on sea-ice formation and movement, but even these camps could be utilized for one to two months.

Archaeological evidence suggests that the size of Beaufort Sea prehistoric population was apparently significantly greater than the historic population and also fluctuated during earlier phases of Eskimo prehistory.

Spencer (1959) estimated that the aboriginal coastal population numbered around 1,500, not including the inhabitants along the Beaufort Sea, however, the large prehistoric settlement discovered in 1939 at Point Hope indicated the presence of a large population around 100 B.C. which suggests Spencer's estimate may be low. Archaeological investigations discovered 575 dwellings and beach erosion may have washed away a considerable number of other houses. It is unlikely that all the houses were occupied simultaneously. It is probable that during the early part of the nineteenth century at least 1,000 persons lived in Point Hope alone.

Migration Cycles. Emphasis has been placed on the pervasive influence of the sea ice on the economic behavior of the Taġiugmiut. When the ice formed in the fall, the hunters returned to their permanent coastal settlements, and after break-up and the disappearance of the ice, the hunters dispersed. The formation of ocean ice in the early fall coincided with the return of families from their summer camps. During the dark winter months, coastal residents generally stayed in the village to participate in a round of festival and ceremonial events. Hunters would venture out on the ocean ice during the few hours of twilight to hunt seal or to fish. Polar bears were frequently encountered while out on the ice seal hunting, and it was not always necessary to make prolonged and numerous trips solely to hunt polar bears.

The arrival of spring and the appearance of the open water lead off the ice signaled the arrival of the bowhead whale and the establishment of whaling camps. Whaling camps were often located several miles out on the ice. All the whaling crews, which involved at least half of the village population resided at these camps for several weeks. These camps also served as a base from which hunters went seal or duck hunting when the whales were not migrating through. The whaling season began with the bowhead's northern migration in April and ended in late May or early June.

Although stress has been placed on the effects the sea ice had in influencing hunting activities, it must not be assumed that the northern hunters were completely dominated by environmental factors. In actuality, the element of economic choice did exist, and this was best demonstrated

during the spring and summer season. The socioeconomic unit had the option of remaining in the **locale** of **the** permanent village or migrating **to** their summer camps.

Even before the whaling season was over, some crews may have elected to move to the inland rivers to hunt geese when they began arriving in late May or early June. If larger camps were to be established inland, travel usually began along the frozen river systems before breakup.

After the sea ice broke up, **the male members** of a socioeconomic group might return to the village to participate in **the** communal hunt for the **walrus** and **ugruk** (bearded seal). The **women** and children remained in the summer camps fishing or gathering eggs and berries. Other hunting groups might decide to camp along the **coast** to hunt ducks or to frequent the bird rookeries. Some hunters traveled inland to **hunt** caribou.

One of the most significant summer activities was the trading fairs between the Tagiugmiut and the Nunamiut. Some families, primarily those from Point Hope, traveled south to the trading center at Kotzebue, while others migrated to the mouth of the Utokok. The Nuvunmiut and the Utqeavinmiut journeyed to the Colville Delta, Barter Island, and as far east as the Mackenzie River.

The spring and summer months were characterized by high mobility, which initially began with a dispersion several miles out on the ocean ice and along the open water lead and then became a retreat inland up to as

far as the Brooks Range foothills and along the Chukchi and Beaufort Sea coasts. Each settlement group ranged within a fairly well-defined boundary. The range of travel extended as far as the Mackenzie River and south to Kotzebue. Seasonal excursions were undertaken by individuals, families, and sometimes entire groups.

Tribal and Family Social Organization. Varied interpretations exist in the literature describing the attributes of the different social units among the northern Inupiat. Generally, anthropologists agree that the northern Inupiat were divided between those who lived inland and derived their livelihood from inland resources while those living along the coast were primarily oriented towards a marine economy, However, Burch (1976) took issue with the existence of a coastal/inland or Tagiugmiut/Nunamiut dichotomy and concluded that the twofold distinction is not adequate to denote the regional variations that existed among both the coastal and noncoastal people. He argued for delineating the Inupiat into regional groups which he called societies.

However, since Inupiat Linguistic designation distinguishes a <code>geographic</code> reference between coastal and inland occupation, and not necessarily <code>im-plying</code> membership in a social unit, the dichotomous approach <code>will</code> be adopted <code>for</code> purposes <code>of</code> analysis, <code>It will</code> be utilized <code>to</code> designate a geographic reference and economic orientation while recognizing that no formal centralized organization existed uniting each division, The inland or coastal orientation does not imply exclusive use and occupancy of a single ecological zone.

The Nunamiut and the Tagiugmiut were divided into regional entities which formed the tribal organization. Each tribe had designations which described the topographic and geographic features of the region they occupied and utilized. Among the Tagiugmiut, the tribe was identified with a permanent coastal community, smaller satellite settlements and inland The Nunamiut tribal units were represented by one to four fish camps. territorial bands moving within a defined regional area. The bands were composed of several households. The coastal village or inland band was integrated around the karigi, or dance hall, which was associated with the concept of the whaling crew or the communal caribou hunt. Although each whaling crew arid caribou drive had an umealig (whaling captain) there were no formally recognized chiefs of the tribes. However, it is interesting to note that Brewer, who made the first journey by a white man along the coast in 1884, repeatedly referenced encounters with the head man of each village (Brewer 1943).

Rainey designated the village and satellite settlements as the **tribal** organization. Although redescribed the village Of **Tikigaq** (Point Hope) as follows, his tribal designation applied to neighboring coastal villages and inland bands:

The Tikerarmiut (Tikigagmiut) are a distinct tribal group of the Tareormiut (Taġiugmiut) or coastal Eskimo. The basis of this grouping was proximity of residence and blood relation, rather than a well-defined political organization. Neither chief nor governing body controlled tribal action. The tribal group was composed of

many virtually independent family groups who remained together in a single village because of common interest and a need for protection., . Occasionally, groups of families established semi-permanent colonies on the coast some distance from Point Hope. But, despite those movements, they considered themselves one people affiliated with a single village. (Rainey 1947)

Although Spencer appears reluctant to recognize the village unit as a tribal organization, his descriptions of the geographical division of villages compares with Rainey's characterization of the tribe in terms of tribal characteristics of moving within a defined territory and exhibiting common interests. Spencer cited group solidarity as a tribal attribute; however, he attributed the group stability to kinship ties. His reference to those groups who established new settlements, either temporarily or longer, and who continued to identify with the major settlement compares with Rainey's contention that those who may have established semipermanent colonies remain affiliated with the permanent settlement.

Inupiat tribal units were composed of a set of local families. Numerous references have been made to the extended family units of the Eskimos; however, the descriptions generally refer to a bilateral kinship designation in which relationship is reckoned through both parents. In a detailed study of northwestern Eskimo kinship systems, Burch (1975) recognized four specific patterns of affiliation.

Social Unit Demographic Unit Spatial Unit

Soci ety Regi onal group Regi on

Community Villagers Village

Local family Local group Hamlet (or neighborhood)

Domestic family Household (or domestic group) Dwelling

The previous analysis of the **tribal** organization corresponds closely to **Burch's** designation of the regional groups as society. **Burch** noted **that** the traditional Eskimo population was organized as societies associated with a particular territory and followed a distinctive **annual** economic **cycle.** The societies tended to be **endogamous**, but there was no **formal** requirement limiting marriage to the society's membership. A **final** characteristic that served **to** distinguish **members** of one society from others was differences in dialect between societies. While these characteristics also apply to tribe, Inupiat tribal attributes also include forms of integration and group solidarity extending beyond kinship ties such as the communal hunting efforts and sharing practices. Tribe is defined to include the community **and** the regional-area within a defined boundary in which members of the tribe move.

Burch's conceptual categories of the local family and domestic family are without question applicable to the Northern Inupiat and for purposes of further description and analysis will be adopted. He defined the minimum Eskimo domestic family as consisting of the single conjugal family including husband, wife, and offspring. However, he noted that the majority of domestic families who occupied a single dwelling were

more complex **in** membership. The **two** most frequent included the grand-parents, parents, and children or two **or** more **siblings**, **their** spouses, and children.

Local families, according to Burch's analysis, were identical in structure and composition to domestic families, but their membership was distributed among two or more households. Burch described the local families as the major organizational component in which the relationships were ordered in a definite pattern. Most activities were carried out by the local family. Families were largely self-sufficient in economic terms.

Previous references have-been made to the Inupiat socioeconomic unit.

In view of the local families' participation in the appropriation of natural resources for food, clothing, shelter and other utilitarian items, it has been designated a socioeconomic unit, The kin-based socioeconomic unit collectively and cooperatively undertook economic ventures. They formed the membership of the whaling crew and the walrus and bearded seal communal hunt, Division of labor was between the sexes of the local family. Additionally, the economic activities were divided between the domestic units of the local family. Some members elected to hunt caribou while others devoted their attention to fishing or duck hunting,

Economic Complexes. Repeated references have been made to the effect the ocean ice had on the economic behavior of the Inupiat.

Through their cultural evolution and technological advances, the coastal Inupiat developed a greater dependence on marine mammals than had their ancestors, but they continued to rely on inland resources which they

obtained directly or through trade with the Nunamiut.

Spencer's (1959) emphasis on the dichotomy between the coastal and inland inhabitants and their interrelationships (also referenced by Larsen and Rainey in 1948) has tended to create the impression that residents exploited the resources of a single ecological zone and that the mutual interdependence between the two groups was absolutely essential. While such a strict interpretation of Spencer's analysis is not accurate, it has influenced later research and placed undue emphasis on the discontinuation of trade between the inland and coastal people as the cause for the Nunamiut abandoning the inland areas during the historic period.

This preoccupation with the dual ecological division has downplayed the dramatic difference between an ordinary coastal maritime culture and that of the northern coastal Inupiat. The grounded shorefast ice and the ice packs extended the boundaries of the Inupiat to a rich environment un-like any other exploited by aboriginal people. The economic complexes will be considered within three separate areas—the ice environment and the littoral and inland zones.

Economic activities associated with the ice environment are highly specialized and are primarily conducted by a relatively large male-dominated group. Ice hunting is of paramount importance both in terms of the primacy of the resources obtained on and off the ice and the amount of time expended in these activities.

In her analysis of the contemporary Arctic Slope socioeconomic subsistence complexes, Worl (1977) distinguished the ice environment as a separate and distinct ecological zone characterized by highly specialized subsistence patterns. Earlier Sonnenfeld (1957) had emphasized that the ocean represented the most important subsistence area to the Barrow Eskimo.

To the Eskimo, it is of least use when free of ice. Most marine activities of the Eskimo originate on the ice . . . it is the ice which facilitates transport and which limits, or at least localizes and makes known to the Eskimo, the range and migration paths of sea mamma ls. With an open sea, potential food resources are hopelessly dispersed. . . . The hunting of this one mammal (seal) makes this ecological zone paramount in the living area of the Barrow Eskimo. The fact that it is also the habitat of whale and walrus makes it even more so. The sea ice may be considered an extension of both land and sea. . . .

The following description of the seasonal formation and movement of the ocean ice and its relationship to economic patterns is abstracted from Larsen and Rainey (1948) who emphasized that the ice pack is responsible for a distinct annual cycle of activities. Hunting on or off the ice can range over a period of eight months.

• New Ice Forms in Fall:

- Return from the summer dispersion; await formation of "slush ice" to begin series of fall and winter religious ceremonies; little hunting.

• Pack Ice Solid:

- November-Apri 1. Small hunting groups obtain seal through breathing holes and seal nets; polar bears also present on pack ice.
- January Jigging tomcods and smelt through ice.
- February-March. Crab obtained through ice only at Point Hope.

• Offshore Lead Opens in Ice:

- March-May. Crews on pack ice, one to three miles from shore awaiting bowhead whales; some seals, belugas, and migratory waterfowl hunted.

Ponds Appear on Ice:

- May-June. Small ponds appear on ice, usually at seal breathing holes where seals now crawl out on ice; after whaling feast, men stalk seals on ice.
- June-July. Larger ponds open; hunters hide behind walls of ice blocks they have constructed; bearded seals harpooned as they rise or swim close to shield; some walrus killed by same method.

• Appearance of Ice Floes:

July. Herds of walrus rest on beach and are killed there
 or as they crawl up out of the water.

• Ice Disappears:

- Villagers disperse to summer camps along the shore where fish and belugas taken in nets; others visit rookeries for birds and to gather eggs; some hunt caribou; other villagers travel to trading centers

Worl (1977) emphasized that the occupation of the arctic slope was based on an effective utilization of the resources which was accomplished not only through the development of technological innovations, but, more importantly, through a system of social organization that promoted cooperation. Collaborative efforts were especially evident in the whaling complex in which formalized regulations demanded the cooperation between non-kin whaling crews.

During the aboriginal period the harvest of a bowhead whale required a minimum of six crews. The ritualized patterns of sharing promoted cooperation even between crews which were not members of the same Karigi (ceremonial dance house) since the size of the share of the whale depended on the order of response when a whale was struck. Whichever crew first assisted another got a larger share of the whale than the next crew which came to assist. Walrus, bearded seal, and beluga were communally taken by several local family units who may have had common membership in a Karigi. Game or fowl hunted individually was also shared among local families. Fishing, usually done by the elderly and young children, was also associated with the ice environment both on the sea and inland areas.

Hunting, fishing, and gathering within the littoral zone--the area between high and low watermarks--tended to be pursued by the domestic family unit, primarily during late spring and summer to take advantage of the absence of landfast ice. Duck hunting has been practiced along the Arctic shoreline for the past 1,000 to 1,400 years and is the most

important subsistence activity of the littoral zone. Although waterfowl have been classed as a supplemental, secondary resource, they became a primary dietary element if whaling and sealing had not been too successful. But fowl were not only important for food. **Down** and skins were used for clothing, and puffin beaks decorated ceremonial items. Ducks were a trade **item** as **well** as a special gift to **old** women.

Some duck hunting took place out on the ice during early spring at the whaling camps or during seal hunting and continued from coastal campsites through fall. Johnson's (1971) research on waterfowl harvest during 1970 revealed that the percentage of hunters age 12 to 24 was considerably greater than the percentage of hunters age 25 to 50 and even greater than those over 50. Spencer (1959), however, felt that duck hunting was primarily limited to the older people who were not capable of more strenuous hunting activities.

Birds hug the shore as they migrate from point to point west along the northern coast. King eiders were the first hunted species to arrive, followed by common eiders and old squaws, spectacle eiders, Stellar's eiders, Arctic Loons, and crested auklets (Johnson 1971). Bird rookeries Located along the coastline were exploited for eggs and birds, Nine species of seabirds breed on the sea cliffs, the most abundant being the murre. Swartz (1966) found that some 400,000 seabirds annually nested in the sea cliffs in the vicinity of Cape Thompson alone. During July the villagers frequented bird rookeries along Cape Lisburne and Cape Thompson to gather eggs and snare birds. The skins were used for

clothing and the eggs and young birds were cooked and preserved in bags of seal oil (Rainey 1947).

After sea-ice breakup, ocean fishing for salmon, char, tomcod, and candlefish commenced all along the coast. Belugas and white whales were hunted by herding them to the shore. Driftwood, an available resource in the treeless coastal region, washed up along the shore, mainly from the large rivers flowing into the Kotzebue Sound and the Beaufort Sea. The supply was adequate for the Inupiat's limited fuel and other purposes (Murdoch 1892).

In the aboriginal period, the Taġiugmiut utilization of the inland zone was primarily limited to the summer season. After the ocean-ice breakup, villagers of all ages dispersed along the coast and into the inland region along rivers and lakes to hunt caribou and other fur-bearing animals, black brant, and geese; fish; harvest the molting fowl; and gather eggs and berries. Small camps dotted the inland areas at favorable fishing sites. Women and young children remained in camp while the men hunted. In addition to fishing activities, women scraped and prepared skins for sewing into clothing and dried or otherwise preserved the harvested food resources.

Although Spencer (1959) divided the arctic slope between the coastal and inland Inupiat, he did recognize the Tagiugmiut use of the inland zone.

Burch (1976) chose to dismiss the inland/coastal dichotomy and adopted a regional approach to account for variations, As noted earlier, however, since the Inupiat themselves use a geographical reference, it has

been employed for purposes of-this report; but this regional approach does not mean to imply that significant variations existed between Taġiugmiut groups since their similarities were greater than any differences.

Nunami ut

The Numamiut have been contrasted with their coastal counterparts as Inupiat who were primarily oriented towards an inland economy. Like the Taġiugmiut, their appropriation of resources from one ecological zone was not exclusive. Although their primary subsistence pursuits were hunting terrestrial mammals, the Nunamiut also hunted in coastal regions but probably to a lesser extent than the Taġiugmiut were able to utilize the inland area. Their hunting activities on the sea ice were limited, and it is fairly certain that they did not participate in whaling. Differences among various Nunamiut groups were greater than those that might have existed between the Taġiugmiut. The regional approach allows for the best description of how various Nunamiut groups differed.

Human occupation of the inland region of the North Slope dates back 5,900 to 7,000 years to the Kayuk complex (Campbell 1962). Archaeological findings announced December 1, 1977 by the National Petroleum Reserve--Alaska Field Studies reported datings to 8,000 years ago. While the evidence substantiates an ancient human occupation of the arctic tundra by a pre-Nunamiut population, the origins, cultural evolution, population movements between the coastal and inland regions and the

southern and northern areas, and **the** interrelationships between the populations have not been firmly established.

Campbell (1962) asserted that the archaeological evidence indicates that the Nunamiut colonized the arctic slope region and the northern Brooks Range by immigrating from the Arctic coast and the Noatak and Kobuk riverine areas about 1,600 A.D. Hall (1976) located a Nunamiut habitation site dating back to 1,500 A.D. to 1,400 A.D. These movements may have been stimulated by famine, population expansion, hostilities between the various groups, a simple attraction to the abundant inland resources, or a combination of factors. If Campbell's position is correct, that the most relevant movements of coastal people inland was as recent as several centuries ago, this may account for their familiarity with and dependence on coastal products.

The ancestors of many of the present day Wainwright residents, the Utorqarmiut (Utukokmiut), as described by Larsen and Rainey (1948), may have represented a transitional group between the Taqiugmiut and the Nunamiut, although they were classed as Nunamiut. The population, estimated at 800, spent considerable time and effort preparing for and participating in coastal activities. Small family units dispersed along the coastal areas between Icy Cape and the mouth of the Utukok River to hunt seal on the ice or from kayaks. Larger kin units engaged in communal walrus hunts. Campbell (1962) felt that the population estimate of 300 was too high, but even if the number is halved, it still suggests a highly successful adaptation. There were also Nunamiut groups who aid

not hunt sea mammals, and it might be conjectured that they, too, represent a distinct origin and cultural evolution.

Territorial Boundaries. The Inupiat designated as **Nunamiut** ranged from the **Noatok River** in the west to near the **delta** of the Mackenzie River in the east. They inhabited the **Endicott** Mountains; the northern coastal plain; and the **Colville, Utukok, Noatak, Kobuk,** and **Selawik** river drainages. Their neighbors included the **Taġiugmiut** Inupiat in the west and north and those who lived to the east of Barter Island. They were bounded **on** the south by the **Koyukon** Indians with whom they had friendly relations and the **Kutchin** Indians, who lived in the **Chandalar** River drainage and its tributaries and were their bitter enemies.

Campbell (1962) distinguished **two Nunamiut** groups of arctic Alaska

Eskimos--those of the inland **montane**, whose economy was primarily based on caribou, and the **riverine** Inupiat, who also hunted caribou but basically were fishermen.

Larsen and Rainey (1948) estimated that at the turn of the century there were at least three thousand Nunamiut; however, this count included the Kobuk and Selawik Rivers and the Noatik region, Spencer (1959) estimated that the Nunamiut aboriginal population north of the Brooks Range numbered 1,500, while Campbell (1962) calculated a maximum of 1,400.

The inland Inupiat were scattered along the river watercourses and did not have permanent fixed communities. They did, however, reside and hunt within defined territorial boundaries, and each group was generally

named after that area. Riverine Nunamiut occupied the Kobuk, Noatik, and Selawik River drainages. The inland montane Nunamiut occupied and utilized the interior arctic from the northern slopes of the Brooks Range, the foothills, and the adjacent plains to the shores of the Beaufort Sea and the Chukchi coastal area around the Utukok River. Territorial boundaries between the North Slope Nunamiut and the Tagiugmiut were not well defined since there was common usage of the peripheral zone but at different times during the seasons. Except for the trading fairs along the coastal areas, the two groups did not mix.

Major Groups. Gubser (1965) distinguished four major groups of Nunamiut, not including Larsen and Rainey's (1948) transitional Utukokmiut. Gubser also excluded the Kugmiut, who lived along the tributaries of the Kuk River and were simlar to the Utukokmiut. The four Nunamiut groups he identified were each comprised of one to five bands. He described each band as an aggregation of households numbering 50 to 150 people who could be identified as inhabitants of a given region. The four major groups made up of these bands are:

Kanjianigmiut

- Lived along the upper Colville River (above the mouth of the Killik River) and its tributaries, such as the Nuka, Kuna, Estivluk, Nigu, and Kurupa; closely associated with the Noatakmiut who lived in the upper Noatok region; traveled north to the mouth of the Colville to trade with the Tagiugmiut.

• Kill ikmiut

- Resided in the Killik, Okokmilaga, Okpikruak, and Chandler river regions; some ranged as far as Survey Pass and the upper Alatna River where they were known as the Alashukmiut.

e Nanmalikmiut

- Inhabited the Anaktuvuk Pass area, Nanushuk or Anoktuvaurak, upper Fork, upper Tinaijguk, and upper Wild Rivers; most frequented Tulujak Lake area and were sometimes referred to as the Tulugakmiut.

• Itkillikmiut

- Included those **Nunamiut** who **lived** along the **Itkillik** River, in **Ulu** Pass, and on the upper **Dietrich** River.

Like the Taġiugmiut, whose permanent communities had satellite colonies, the major Nunamiut groups had smaller offshoots that continued to identify with the parent group. Although they were recognized as a subunit of the larger group, they might have their own name to designate the area where they resided. If the separation continued over a considerable length of time, they might become an independent group.

At the time of western contact, before their drastic decline, Nunamiut from the four major groups were expanding eastward. Had they not been disrupted, the Nunamiut who were ranging along the Kuparuk, Sagavanirktok, Ivishok, and Canning Rivers may have become major stable bands. The Nunamiut were also traveling east and establishing camps on the Jago, Hulahula, Sheejek, the East Fork of the Chandalar, and the Colleen Rivers.

Social Organization. The band united by kinship, a sense of territoriality, and communal caribou hunting efforts was the primary Nunamiut social unit and ranged in size from 50 to 150 individuals. As previously noted, one to five bands comprised a group, but in actuality it is more likely that a group was represented by one band because of the limited resources available in a region. Gubser's (1965) group classification may, however, be useful to describe territorial bounds and to recognize group membership of those bands which had temporarily split away from the major band when the population was high or resources were scarce.

The band was similar to the larger socioeconomic unit of the Taġiugmiut, but it was much more formalized and persisted from year to year. It was composed of several households with a sense of membership in the band. They traveled and camped within a defined territory. Their primary corporate economic activity was the caribou hunt. Although there may have been more than one umealik (rich man, recognized as a leader, but not a chief) in a band, there tended to be a dominant one who was characterized by economic strength and held a position of power and influence (Gubser 1965).

During certain periods of the year the band had to disperse. Smaller domestic family units were formed into a temporary cooperative economic complex which might include two to three nuclear families. The domestic unit might also occupy a single dwelling when they were with the band.

Subsistence Patterns. The Nunamiut have become characterized as

hunters of the migratory caribou. Caribou movements ordered the nomadic behavior of the **Nunamiut** in the interior tundras and the high montane region. Caribou provided the raw materials for shelter, boats, clothing, bedding, rope, thread, tools, and food.

Campbell (1962) described **Nunamiut** subsistence activities in part of his analysis of their settlement patterns. Among hunting societies in which there is no subsistence surplus, he noted that "the basic relationship between settlements and environment is a direct and immediate one. . . . **Nunamiut** encampments more directly mirror, as it were, those Brooks Range ecological variables which on the one hand seasonally delimit or restrict, and on the other hand seasonally provide the natural resources necessary to a hunting culture."

Campbell distinguished three primary categories of **Nunamiut** settlement patterns, which varied according to season and type of economic activity --main encampments (bands), scattered encampments (family), and nomadic campsites (family). The large summer encampments at predetermined rendezvous points, where trading took place between the **Nunamiut** and coastal Inupiat, represented a fourth major type **of** settlement.

• Main Encampments (Bands)

In April and May and again in August and September, the thousands of migrating caribou traveling through the major passes concentrated the Nunamiut in large population units in strategically located positions.

• Small Scattered Encampments (Domestic Family)

October through January, the large encampments broke up into scattered camps throughout the region, subsisting on small bands of caribou that were insufficient to support the large main encampments. Winter camps might remain in valleys in the same locality for several months, depending on the availability of the caribou.

Nomadic-Moving Campsites (Domestic Family)

February-March and June-July, small groups scour the country for game, fish, and plants. The main camps from **which** foragers are based range in size from **two to** many families.

• Trading Settlements (Bands)

Large Nunamiut settlements occurred at such established trading centers as the mouth of the Colville or Utukuk Rivers, Barrow, and Kotzebue. In addition to trading, they also hunted sea mammals and fished. Some Brooks Range Nunamiut occasionally summered on the northern coast. These large coastal summer gatherings must be considered as part of the Nunamiut settlement pattern.

Tagiugmiut/Nunamiut Interrelationship

The relationship between the **Tagiugmiut** and **the Nunamiut** was both economic and social. Structured trade occurred within established formal

partnerships between inland and coastal groups or between men and women with no formal arrangement. Commodities were exchanged for their subsistence worth and for their prestige value. Surplus resources and crafts accumulated throughout the previous year were major trade items, but they also exchanged goods they had previously bartered from southern and eastern groups.

Spencer (1959) noted that the **Nunamiut** depended more on trade than their coastal counterparts. He suggested that the inland group may have originally obtained **seal** and whale oil themselves, but after a change in hunting patterns, they could no longer obtain these in sufficient quantity within their own economic system. Although **oil** was a food item, its most significant use was for fuel.

In exchange for the vital oil, the Nunamiut primarily offered caribou meat and caribou products—hides (tanned and untanned), sinew, and caribou antlers and bones for the marrow. Other important items were wolf, fox, wolverine, sheepskin, musk—ox hair, and wood objects. The Nunamiut also acted as the trading intermediaries for such European items as metal vessels, tobacco, trade beads, and knives obtained from the Siberians in the Bering Straits by the riverine Nunamiut.

The Tagiugmiut were less dependent on trade, and the many caribou skins they obtained in trade were viewed as wealth. They did, however, require caribou for bedding and clothing. The principal items of trade they offered were seal and whale oil, whale bone, seal and ugruk skins, walrus skins which were important for the construction of the umiak (skin boats),

and stone and **slate** for dart points. They also traded with their eastern neighbors for **stone lamps**.

Although it should be emphasized that there were Nunamiut who did not engage in sea mammal hunting, it appears that the Nunamiut expended considerable effort in coastal hunting activities. Conversely, the Taġiugmiut were able hunters within the inland area. It appears that the crucial trade item for the Nunamiut was seal and whale oil for fuel; however, since Nunamiut travel and camping plans considered the availability of willow, it is clear that they had certain fuel sources of their own. The Nunamiut could, in fact, obtain seal oil for themselves and they did have access to willow which was also used as fuel.

Trade served to bring these widely separated groups together. Following trading activities, people engaged in several days of dancing and playing games. The two groups did not dance with one another, but they did dance for each other and participated together in competitive sports. This interaction promoted the spread of ideas and cultural elements and helped diminish differences between the groups. Intermarriage, however, was rare, and there were no recognized kinship ties between the two groups. Nunamiut women were forbidden to marry Tagiugmiut men (Ingstad 1954). Trading activities did, however, help the Inupiat achieve a mutual interdependence and social stability.

Me do know that there were occasions when the Tagiugmiut (Barrow) invited

Nunamiut people from the Colville River area to participate in the

Messenger Feast, or as it is sometimes called, the Messenger Dance. The feast was an elaborate **socioceremonial** occasion involving economic exchange to enhance the status of the **umialik**, whaling captains, and men who owned boats. Its significance was as an integrating force among families, trading partners, and **friends**, and it helped establish a sense of solidarity and cultural uniformity between the communities and groups. (Spencer 1959). Little has been written about the Messenger Feast, and less is known about the circumstances of coastal and inland group **participation** in it.

The Historical Period: Major Economic Influences

The historical period commenced in 1826 with contact between the Inupiat and early explorers. The explorers' journals, maps, reports on travel conditions and wildlife populations served to open the Arctic to economic development which characterized the historic period. Although reports on culture contact and change are dominated by theories of acculturation, the prevalent research bias and assumptions continue to treat acculturation as a unidirectional process to complete assimilation into the dominant culture. Acculturation is a process of focusing on cultural change and is not in itself an end result of culture change.

The history of Inupiat acculturation is complex and demonstrates the incorporation of alien cultural elements, the elimination of previously existing elements, and the modification and reorganization of others.

The addition of new cultural elements was selective like the many

technological innovations which were adopted, such as the whaling weaponry, while traditional items such as the skin boat used for spring whaling were retained. Examples of directed culture change also occurred under the proselyte and educational institution programs in which the missionaries and teachers purposefully initiated change to eradicate aboriginal beliefs and ideologies and to introduce new ideals. The Inupiat also responsed to contact situations by actively exerting their influence to participate in the various economic development activities which included the commercial whaling era, the fur trapping and the military construction periods. The reduction of the natural resources on which the Inupiat depended and their involvement in the development activities resulted in a modification of the degree of their autonomy; however, after each period of economic development, they intensified their traditional subsistence pursuits. The viability of the Inupiat culture can be attributed to their social solidarity and their continuing relationship to their land and traditional way of life through the periods of economic development. The Inupiat case demonstrates that acculturation may occur without a subsequent change in values and without a change in the reference group.

EXPLORATION PERIOD

Long before the Inupiat saw a white person, they were familiar with western manufactured goods, which they received by way of Asiatic trade. In 1826 Commander R.W. Beechey, of the vessel <u>H.M.S. Blossom</u>, became the first white person to record contact with the northern Inupiat--years after the Russians landed on Alaskan shores.

Beechey was astonished that the Inupiat not only did not appear surprised to see their first white person but were friendly and hospitable all along the Chukchi coast. He also commented on their aggressive efforts to trade, which he obliged. The Inupiat at Utqkeavik (Barrow) and Nuvuk (Point Barrow) were not, however, as delighted to greet their first white men. Mr. Elson, the Master Officer of the Blossom, had been dispatched to continue the Blossom's expedition in a barge from Icy Cape, and he described the Inupiat at Utqkeavik as overbearing and neither friendly nor easily satisfied with the trading transactions. The Inupiat at Nuvuk greeted Mr. Elson with a show of arms and would not allow him to land.

Nevertheless, direct trade and commercial relationships with the white man had begun. The first recorded natural resources exported, from the North Slope were coal, two swans, and four hundred pounds of venison. The explorers hired their first Inupiat to pull the barge along the coast-line. In exchange, the explorers left beads, tobacco, and knives (Beechey 1831).

British exploration crews in the Arctic continued to make brief, periodic contact with the Northern Inupiat. The motivating force behind the explorations was to locate Sir John Franklin and his expedition, which had been lost searching for the Northwest Passage in 1848. During the following decade, 41 search parties had been dispatched. Six had gone overland to the coast of arctic America, and 35 had traveled along the Arctic coast. In 1850, the first ship wintered off Point Barrow, and the following year two ships wintered off the northern coast. The

as the basis for later maps and charts of the Arctic coast (Hulley 1970).

To gain trade information, the Hudson's Bay Company dispatched Thomas Simpson to the region by way of the Mackenzie River delta in 1837. The Colville River and Beechey Point were named during his survey trip to Barrow (Andrews 1947), but Simpson encountered difficulties with the Barrow Inupiat and was forced to turn back before he made any explorations further east (Van Stone 1962).

The expeditions continued to trade and obtain the supplies and resources they needed. They offered items with which the Inupiat were familiar, and they also introduced the Inupiat to the practice of working in exchange for commodities. The direct effects of their activities on the Inupiat were not immediately evident, but the stage was set for the first commercial development in the Arctic, which we know did profoundly affect the Inupiat. These early explorers surveyed previously uncharted coasts, and gave the landmarks the English names they are now known by. The aboriginal inhabitants had been described to the public as friendly and receptive to trade. Explorers' reports of large numbers of bowhead whales in the Arctic soon lured commercial whalers.

THE COMMERCIAL WHALING PERIOD AND DECLINE

Women's fashions, and the need for whale oil, stimulated the commercial expansion of the bowhead whaling industry into arctic Alaska. Baleen,

or whale bone as it is sometimes called in the literature was in high demand for women's corset stays and skirt hoops. It was also used for buggy whips. The whale oil was used for **fuel** in **lamps**. The bowhead whale, which could be found in abundance off the Arctic coast, yielded more baleen than other whale, averaging 1,500 pounds apiece. When commercial whaling began in the Arctic in 1850, baleen sold for **32**¢ a pound; by **1905** the price had soared to **\$4.90** a pount (Van Stone 1962).

The development of the petroleum industry in the late 1860's cut heavily into the demand for whale oil. One bowhead whale could **yield** an average of 100 barrels of oil which in 1865 was worth \$1.45 a gallon. However, between 1865 to 1875 whale oil imports to the United States dropped from 76,000 to 35,000 gallons, and the price was down to 65¼¢ a gallon (Bockstoce 1977). Petroleum products were rapidly supplanting the use of whale oil, but at the same time the skyrocketing market for baleen kept whaling pressures on the bowhead high.

The market for baleen finally plummeted with the introduction of flexible spring steel in 1907. The depressed demand for baleen and whale oil, the heavy losses of whaling vessels in the treacherous seas, and a depleted whale resource reduced profits to the extent that the market for bowhead whale completely collapsed by 1910.

The golden age of the whaling in arctic Alaska began in 1848 with the discovery by New England whalers of the whaling grounds in the Bering Strait and the Arctic Ocean. In 1846 more than 725 vessels were

involved in commercial whaling activities, and a majority of them eventually penetrated into the Arctic (Andrews 1947). Steamship whaling was ushered in with the return of the Mary and Helen to San Francisco in 1880. She carried 2,350 barrels of oil and 45,000 pounds of baleen valued at more than \$100,000 obtained from a catch of 27 bowhead whales (Bockstoce 1977).

With added steam-power, whaling vessels would penetrate into difficult and dangerous ice zones and could winter in the Arctic, and this, coupled with the establishment of onshore whaling stations in the mid-1880's, meant continuous contact between the Inupiat and whites. By 1893 one fourth of the whaling vessels were wintering off the mouth of the Mackenzie River, while others remained at Herschel Island and in the vicinity of Point Barrow (Van Stone 1962). In 1894 over 500 whale-men wintered at Herschel. Onshore whaling stations were established at Barrow in 1884 and Point Hope in 1887.

Historians and anthropologists uniformly describe the effects the commercial whalers had on the Inupiat as devastating. Hully (1970) stated, "While there, they (American whalers on the Arctic coast) carried off the fuel and supplies of the Eskimos, debauching the natives with liquor and ruining their health by introducing the diseases of the white man." Hinckley (1972) described the whalers as "... ruthless predators, men little different from their contemporary, the Great Plains buffalo hunter. Both were sojourners who gave slight thought to the possible extinction of their mammal quarry. . . . As for the Impact their ecological ravages might have on Eskimo life, few seem to have cared."

Van Stone (1962), an anthropologist, assessed the effects as follows:

The crews of the whaling vessel taught the **people** how to make intoxicating liquor and then took advantage **of** their desire **to** obtain the raw material for **its** manufacture in trade for the baleen. They introduced venereal and other diseases that had never prevailed.

. . O Many northern villages lost fully half their population in a few years.

In addition to the bowhead whale decline and the 50 percent reduction of the northern Inupiat population, other populations were also adversely affected. For example, it has been estimated by Andrews (1947) that more than 100,000 walruses were taken by the whalers for their oil and ivory tusks in the decade 1870 to 1880. This concurrent drop in both the whale and walrus populations forced the Inupiat to make demands on the caribou, which was already under strong hunting pressure by the whalers and other whites in the Arctic.

The main impact on the caribou population from the whalers was between 1890 and 1904 when as many as 20 ships and over 500 men wintered along the coast from Point Barrow to the Mackenzie. The crew of the first three vessels that remained in the Arctic during the winter of 1890 off Herschel Island consumed 40,000 pounds of choice caribou hams. The ships' dogs were reported to have eaten over 400 caribou carcasses during one year. A naturalist who traveled to Herschel Island in 1896 estimated that each ship required more than 10,000 pounds of caribou a year (Bockstoce 1977). Also the whalers preferred the female and fawn for meat

and skins which imposed an added pressure on the caribou herds (Sonnenfeld 1957). One average female caribou yielded approximately a 100 pounds per carcass which meant one ship required 100 caribou each year.

Many Nunamiut whose primary food was caribou reportedly starved because of the lack of meat. Ernest Leffingwell, who conducted a series of expeditions for the U.S. Geological Survey, attributed the population decline of the Nunamiut to the diminished number of caribou (Gubser 1965). Starvation and epidemics of influenza and measles all took their toll of the Nunamiut population. In the late 1880's or early 1890's, a flu epidemic killed more than a hundred Nunamiut at a feast at the upper Noatak River (Gubser 1965). In the early 1900's, Charles Brewer reported the death of 200 Nunamiut who had contracted influenza at Barrow after a few whaling ships had arrived.

The Nunamiut began to immigrate to coastal communities toward the end of the century first to trade their furs and to hunt caribou for the whalers. However, the dramatic decline of the caribou population precipitated the disappearance of the Nunamiut from the arctic tundra by 1920 until the mid-1930's when the caribou population began to increase.

Spencer (1959) argued that the disappearance of the Nunamiut from the inland region resulted from the cessation of trade relations with the Taġiugmiut. He suggested that the Nunamiut were forced to immigrate to the coast, not because of the decimation of the caribou herds, but rather because the coastal people discontinued the traditional trading patterns.

If, as Spencer suggests, trade between the two groups did cease, it should have occurred during the commercial whaling period from 1848 to 1910 when the coastal Inupiat had access to the commercial whalers' trade However, scattered references throughout the literature suggest items. that trade continued. In 1881, Murdoch (1892) mentioned trading transaction between the coastal and inland Inupiat at the mouth of the Colville. In 1886, Lt. George M. Stoney's assistant, Howard, traveled with the Nunamiut on their trading journey down the Colville River (Gubsen 1965). The U.S. Census recorded 200 residents at the Colville River trading center in 1900. In 1901, Schrader with the U.S. Geological Survey reported Nunamiut traveling down the Colville to trade (Gubsen 1965). Charles Brewer (1942) from Barrow was also sending items to the Colville to trade for Nunamiut products. The disappearance of the Nunamiut from the arctic tundra can be attributed to a number of factors, but the decline of the caribou population was perhaps the most significant.

The establishment of the onshore commercial whaling stations introduced modern equipment into Inupiat whaling and increased the adoption of traditional methods by whites. The commercial whalers decided to follow the Inupiat's example and hunt directly off the shorefast ice. They soon discarded their wooden boats for the lighter, quieter skin-covered umiak. Inupiat taboos and supernatural restrictions were relaxed, for they had seen that the commercial whalers broke all the rules and were still successful in their hunt.

The Inupiat soon began signing on as crew members for the commercial

whalers. The whaling stations began to compete for Inupiat whalers, especially the harpooners and shoulder gun men. Inupiat came from the Kotzebue region and the Noatak and Kobuk Rivers to work for the stations. Although most returned home after the whaling season, many intermarried with the local Inupiat during the 25 years the station operated. Steffanson (1966) reported that by 1908 the more affluent Inupiat whalers had as many as six of their own crews whaling commercially. Although the Inupiat participated in the commercial hunt, they also maintained their traditional subsistence pursuits which continued to be their major support for their livelihood.

By the time commercial whaling activity came to a close the Inupiat had been introduced to the system of working for wages and hunting the whale for its commercial value. He had adopted modern hunting equipment, and he had developed a dependence on a few white man's food staples. With the adoption of modern equipment and tools that he could not manufacture, food he could not acquire, and all of the other items of which he could no longer obtain by trade, the Inupiat became dependent on an external source. At the close of the commercial whaling period the Inupiat intensified their subsistence pursuits.

The secondary effects of the commercial whaling activities were the introduction of schools, Christianity, and the reindeer herding industry to the Inupiat. Dr. Sheldon Jackson, who was a missionary and the general agent for education in Alaska, was urged to come to the Arctic by Lieutenant Commander Charles A. Stockton of the <u>U.S.S. Thetis</u> who was

appalled by what he considered to be the desperate condition of the Dr. Jackson responded, and after negotiations with several Eski mos. Protestant mission societies, he awarded Point Hope to the Episcopal Church and Point Barrow to the Presbyterians in 1890. Initially the missionaries served as both preachers and teachers. In some instances, he also provided the medical services and supervised the reindeer herding industries. The influence of the missionary was pervasive. He introduced new religious beliefs; discredited traditional ideologies and taboos; influenced housing structures and dress patterns; and altered subsistence patterns such as prohibiting working or hunting on Sunday. Because of the unpredictability of environmental conditions which affects the presence of wildlife and the irregularity of the migratory patterns of caribou, marine mammals, and fowl, the prohibition against hunting on Sunday often led to a shortage of food and hunger.

The introduction of reindeer to the Arctic was originally initiated to feed the several hundred starving commercial whalers who had wintered off Point Barrow in 1897 (Olson 1969), but a further objective was to "help civilize the Native people and provide the basis for a future commercial economy" (Jackson 1893).

The reindeer industry, through the various federal management policy changes, had introduced the concept of individual ownership of a biological resource and also the concept of a corporate business. The reindeer industry involved relatively few Inupiat, and according to Van Stone (1962), "... even the most dedicated herders desired to return to the

village for spring whaling activities, and it was at this time that large numbers of deer wandered away and were lost." Another aspect of the government sponsored reindeer industry was its attempts to introduce a system whereby the government assumed full responsibility for feeding, clothing, and educating the herders.

Olson's (1969) study of the reindeer as an instrument of social and economic change among the Inupiat pointed out that the issue of starvation was more perceived than real, the reindeer was actually regarded by the Native population as an item of wealth and not food. He concluded that the reindeer did not basically alter Eskimo society but instead was adapted into it (Olson 1969). The effects of reindeer on Native subsistence patterns appear to have been few arid transitory.

THE FUR INDUSTRY

The interrelations between the macro- and microeconomies that developed between the national market and the Inupiat society are clearly demonstrated in the rise of the fur industry in the early 1900's. The demand for a product at the national level fostered the development of the fur trading industry in the arctic and the commencement of fur trapping activities by the Inupiat. Fur had become a fashion craze, and when Europe, beset by World War I, could no longer meet the high demands of the market, emphasis shifted to New World supplies. Fox, particularly its white phase, was highly valued.

The decline of the baleen trade and the rising market in furs encouraged a population shift back toward inland areas and smaller coastal settlements. Fur trading posts were rapidly established at Wainwright, Barrow, Beechey Point, Demarcation Point, and Barter Island. Initially, transactions were limited to bartering food supplies, traps, shotguns, rifles, and ammunition for furs, but many older Inupiats remember when cash was introduced. Vincent Nageak of Barrow related:

When I was young, we used to hunt polar bear for food, never sell hide. We needed the hide for mattresses for ice hunting since it never gets wet when we sleep. It was also used for sitting on, for mittens, or to cover the snow house hall doorway. After awhile, Brewer (Charles Brewer) pay \$15 for the hide. That was the first time someone paid for the hide. (Worl 1977)

Women and children were also affected by the fur trade. Bertha Leavitt of Barrow noted that sewing thimbles had traditionally been made out of ugruk (bearded seal) but related, "When I was young, I caught a white Iemming and brought. it home. My uncle took the Iemming to Brewers and got me a thimble in exchange. I was getting rich!" (Worl 1977).

Sonnenfeld (1957) analyzed the impact of the fur trade on subsistence:

Unlike whaling, trapping thus required that the Eskimo give up a portion of their subsistence activity, mainly the early and midwinter sealing, and the late winter-early spring caribou hunting.

To this extent, trapping had a greater effect on subsistence activity

than had commercial whaling. The effects were less, however, in terms of adequacy of subsistence. By dispersal, the individual Eskimo had a greater hunting territory available to supply his subsistence. Fish were more available along the inland rivers than at Barrow. Caribou were more abundant along the east coast than at Barrow, and more easily available during the late spring-summerearly fall. Seal, though perhaps less abundant, were still plentiful along the east coast. During the late 1920's and through the thirties, reindeer were able to supplement subsistence. The only game really lost to the migrant Eskimo were the walrus and whale, but depending on the furcatch, which was more likely to be adequate than for those maintaining a Barrow residence, even these could be obtained by trade.

The Inupiat's purchasing power increased as the price of fur continued to soar during the 1920's. U.S. Office of Education report (1912-13) noted that one fox skin in 1913 had the same purchasing power as 28 fox skins in 1910-1911. Credit, not cash, was the primary medium of exchange at most trading posts.

The decline of fur prices during the depression of the early thirties drastically affected the Inupiat trapper. Unable to trade his furs or obtain credit, he was forced to revert to former subsistence patterns. During the 1930's hunting pressures had depleted the game in the inland areas adjacent to the coast. At this time, the Nunamiut, who through the years of living on the coast had maintained their group identity,

decided to return to the Brooks Range (Gubser 1965).

NAVAL PETROLEUM RESERVE #4 EXPLORATION

By the time major petroleum exploration programs on Naval Petroleum Reserve #4 began in 1944, the Inupiat were familiar with working for wages, but the exploration program which lasted until 1953 brought the true dawning of the cash economy to the region. The Navy contracted with Arctic Contractors (ARCON) to conduct the exploration project, and in 1947, the Navy also decided to establish the Naval Arctic Research Laboratory near Barrow.

ARCON had intended to import labor assuming that the Inupiat would not be able to adjust to the employment demands, but the Inupiat petitioned Alaska's delegate to Congress demanding that local labor be utilized. After a meeting between ARCON, Alaska Native Service, and the Navy, ARCON began hiring the Inupiat as laborers in 1946. ARCON adopted the policy of allowing the Inupiat to take off for brief periods to hunt. Participation in the winter, spring, and fall subsistence activities was unaffected since the peak period for ARCON activities was July through September.

Sonnenfeld (1957) gives a detailed review of Inupiat participation during the ARCON operation. During 1946-1953, ARCON hired 227 Inupiat, but turn-over was high. About half worked continuously for one full year, but only half of those worked two or more consecutive years, and only one

worked during the entire seven-year period. The pay ranged from one to nearly three dollars an hour. The average annual salary for an Inupiat employed full time by ARCON in 1951 was \$5,800. Sonnenfeld observed that the work force could take advantage of wage opportunities without seriously affecting subsistence since the number of Eskimos involved was relatively small, and most of the population continued with traditional pursuits. He noted that the wage earner gave financial support to the whaling crews, thereby insuring his continued share in the whale and walrus catch. Sonnenfeld contended that the number of whaling crews actually increased as a result and that this enabled more effective utilization of the whale resources. With more crews to assist in taking the whale, losses would (assumedly) be less.

Following the close of the ARCON operation, as with the previous development periods, the Inupiat once more increased their dependence on the subsistence resources. Sonnenfeld noted that a few families emigrated to urban centers to pursue a wage economy and most returned to traditional activities. There were additional brief periods of wage opportunities during the Distant Early Warning (DEW) Line construction program during the mid-1950's. The 1960's found the Inupiat engaged in what has been described as a dual economy, consisting of a combination of cash and subsistence. Subsistence in the contemporary era, with a dependence on some cash income, is certainly different from aboriginal times; however, the resources it provides to the community are still substantial. The incorporation of the Inupiat into the monetary market system and the commercialization of the Inupiat economic system continued alongside

the traditional socioeconomic system. With the decline of each economic development period, the traditional Inupiat socioeconomic system reemerged as the primary economic system; however, it was never again as autonomous as it had been in the aboriginal period.

The Contemporary Period

POLITICAL DEVELOPMENT

Aboriginal Inupiat societies have been described in the classic ethnographic literature as devoid of formalized political institutions. Now, however, defining political institutions solely in terms of a non-kin based centralized state operating within a defined boundary has been rejected by many social theorists (Balandier 1970; Schapera 1967). Social scientists increasingly characterize political development less by type of institution than by the functions performed.

To date, a detailed analysis of the Inupiat aboriginal and early historic political sphere has not been done. However, many references are made in the literature to the organizational forms which helped to establish and maintain the internal cooperation and external independence of Inupiat societies. Additionally, traditional forms persist into the contemporary period for example, the whaling captains' associations, which demonstrate an interaction between the past and ethnographic present.

The contemporary period began with early attempts by the Inupiat to

politically organize themselves on a regional basis in the 1960's in response to state selection of Native land under the Alaska Statehood Act, the Native land claims effort, and the State's sale of oil leases at Prudhoe Bay. The communities had elected village councils long before then; in fact, several councils had been formally organized and functioning for as long as 50 years. These village organizations provided the base for regional awareness and development of the North Slope.

Village Councils

The western model of formalized political organization in the region began with formation of village councils, promoted by missionaries and teachers to encourage democratic forms of local leadership. However, while it appears that the formal council organization is recent, participation, function, and decision-making processes are well grounded in traditional law ways and values. These communities are said to be organized on a "traditional basis" or to have "traditional" governments.

The second form of village governments comes from provisions of the Indian Reorganization Act (IRA) of 1934, extended to Alaska in 1936. The objective of the IRA was the political and economic assimilation of Native American societies into the larger national society by changing the structure of Native communities. The IRA provided for the formation of autonomous economic and political institutions based on the United State Constitution. Such IRA organizations include federally recognized tribal governments but are not incorporated cities under state law.

There are other IRA villages which are organized according to the conditions of membership, regulation of internal affairs, rules of inheritance, and disposition of tribal property, established by IRA rules, but which are not formally incorporated by IRA. Some communities are organized under the IRA and also formally incorporated under state laws. State-incorporated villages have varying municipal powers and responsibilities depending on their class status. However, as <code>Brøsted</code> (1975) pointed out in his study of <code>Ulgunik</code> (<code>Wainwright</code>), the differences between villages organized on a traditional basis and those formally incorporated under state <code>law</code> are actually negligible. He noted that traditional councils without a formal jurisdictional basis function as formally organized governments, assuming control of domestic affairs and external problems and relations.

The forms of government and populations of North Slope communities in 1970 were as follows (Federal Field Committee 1971):

Communi ty	Form of <u>Government</u>	1970 Popul ati on	Percent Native
Anaktuvuk Pass	4th-Class City	99	98%
Barrow	4th-Class City	2, 104	90%
Kaktovi k	Tradi ti onal	723	88%
Point Hope	4th-Class City	386	97%
Wainwright	4th-Class City	315	97%

Those cities categorized as fourth class became **second-class** cities in 1972 as a result of legislative change. Barrow was later upgraded to a

first-class city. A discussion of the government of these communities now follows.

<u>Wainwright.</u> Brøsted's 1975. study of Ulgunik (Wainwright) presents a fairly detailed description of the town council in the early 1970's and provides insight into the development of local responses to external affairs and the integration of the village into the emerging regional organization of the North Slope. This study may be fairly generalized to characterize all North Slope village councils. Brøsted's work is the only recent available documentation on the village council but it generally characterizes all village councils and will be used extensively. Other village councils will be discussed to illustrate the Inupiat adaptations of a western government model.

The State has vested formal legal requirements, responsibilities, functions, and authorities in city councils, but village councils as they operate today are also greatly involved in traditional affairs. Brøsted's study reveals that since not all internal social problems are regulated by ordinance, decisions are often based on unwritten laws. Council deliberations often encompass matters dealing with social control, and complaints are often brought before the council before they are referred to the magistrate.

The following excerpts from Brøsted's minutes of several council meetings demonstrate the informal relationships the council has with various social entities in the community, which serves to strengthen its authority.

Also, council meetings often involve **people** who **are** not present, in which case either someone goes to get him or he is asked to report to the council later. Discussion topics are characteristic of North Slope village life:

- suggestion was made by N. to open Bingo game for the city.
- the whole year. Also reports that VFW will pay wages for one police for the whole year. Also reports that VFW can be of help to anybody. . . For one policeman is \$300 yearly. They are also putting \$15 per bingo game for new Community Building.

There **shall** be dances held in **Wainwright** as of this date voted for . by the majority.

N. left to go get 0 for finding about Rec. **Com.** (Recreation **Committee**) earnings. 0 reports that since he took over . . . had \$482.85 . . . Supposed to have \$678.94 . . . Committeeman had borrowed an amount of \$196.09 . . . Needs to pay \$50.59 to clear his name (debt).

Mayor's first subject was selecting 2 delegates to AFN (Alaska Federation of Natives). . . VFW will take care of one of the delegates and the Rec. Corn. the other. . . .

. . . whaling captains had told the mayor to let the council stop

the bingo games till the whaling season is over, this is due to hardly any men at the camps on some bingo nights, votes will be taken whether to have Bingo games during the whaling season.

No Bingo games till whaling season is over with exception of having it during blizzards.

The recreation committee referred to in <code>Brøsted's</code> minutes falls under the authority of the council because recreation is one of two powers of the City (fire protection is the other). It raises funds by holding bingo games. The Council determined that 70 percent of the money raised could be kept by the recreation <code>committee while 15</code> percent is taken for tax and 15 percent for the Community Building Fund which the residents <code>plan</code> to build. Additional uses of these funds include the large feasts held during Christmas week and search and rescue efforts for those lost on the tundra.

Like other city councils, the village council is concerned with educational programs, health issues, public welfare matters, and utility projects. Presently, they serve only in an advisory capacity on educational matters since the Borough is now responsible for education. Although the council represents all village citizens, it is heavily involved with Alaska Native affairs and the integration of the village in the regional organization as the following excerpts from Brøsted's minutes show:

N is reporting that the meeting he attended at Barrow with ASNA (Arctic Slope Native Association). He reports the oil co. is

planning to put up a pipeline from Fairbanks to the Arctic Slope. The ASNA is trying to stop it so the caribou can be free to roam back and forth. Also water pollution in the rivers from chemicals from oil drillers. This water pollution might kill the fish. O is reporting while at Barrow that Fred Paul the Attorney for ASNA told him that the people here should unite to help the association at Barrow.

Mayor P read a letter from Attorney Fred Paul concerning starting a borough in the Arctic Slope. The members agreed to have a borough so the natives have more say over what they done or not.

Next is a **letter** from William Hensely concerning the endorsement of Byron Mallet for Rural Cap Executive-director. The council is now endorsing him for that post, also the **people** will sign their names when this paper is hung at the store.

Sam Talaak of ASNA, Barrow is now talking about the matters. He is saying that Wainwright should make out a charter for IRA of 1934.

The council would write to Peter Three Stars to find out how to go about the matter. Barrow, Wainwright, Pt. Hope, Barter Islands and Anaktuvik Pass will make out one corporation and chartered under about the ASNA. He is also saying that Stevens Village was recognized by the U.S. Court under its IRA Charter of 1934, while Beaver, Wiseman, and Minto were not, due to not having this Charter. . . . Barrow was in 1939 organized after the Indian

Reorganization Act, and in the part about the city's authority you can read: "The Village shall have the following powers:
... to stop any giving or taking away of Village lands or other property without its consent, and to get legal aid, as set forth in the act of June 18, 1934.. (From Article 4, Constitution and By-laws

of the Native Village of Barrow.)

The letter is to express we need more land than what was passed on the last Bill in the Senate. Discussion on land claims: The 40 million acres should be retained agreed by the natives in 1967. . . We want the 40 million acres of land agreed by our native leaders, even (though) we the people in this village do not think it is enough to take care for our substance. We always need about 750,000 sq. miles to hunt for our main diet. . . . T, is appointed to see about getting transportation to D.C. X drafted the letter to congressman Haley, Washington D.C. Copies of letter is to be sent to Tundra Times, ANB, ASNA, and the N.Y. Times. , . . . N and Z is to explain to the people concerning writing letters on this land claims issue, each is to read the letter drafted and hunged at the store before they write themselves to Congressman Haley.

The letter on the Alaska Native land claims bill referenced in the minutes was written to Congressman Haley in September 1970. The letter demonstrates the degree of political sophistication and knowledge of the federal legislative processes the Inupiat had even then. The following

paragraph was abstracted from the letter written to the congressman from the Village of Wainwright:

May we make ourselves clear. We are concerned for our hunting grounds. This land has belonged to our fore-fathers since all remembrance. In that time it has been established that for our village to exist, we will need to retain a minimum of 150 miles to the south and 150 miles to the east and 45 miles to the north for a hunting ground. This land is not the type that is able to produce any type of crops even to a small garden There is some grass and a few berries but not enough to exist on. Our only liveli-hood and food comes from the range animals, i.e. caribou, fox, moose, fish, wolf, wolverine, bears and game birds. 100% of the people's total subsistence depends on these hunting grounds.

The land is **our** prime concern. However **we** are concerned **not** only for ourselves but for our grandchildren and their grand-children. We would therefore ask that **the** 2% over-riding royalty on the mineral holdings that has passed the Senate; be changed to a perceptual (perpetual) 2% basis.

The letter identifies the area the people utilize and illustrates residents' view of their settlement pattern, a view which differs considerably from traditional government townsite surveys which treat communities in terms of residential, commercial, and community facility land uses.

Point Hope. Although Van Stone's account of Point Hope's council was written 15 years before Brøsted's, there are many basic similarities. Point Hope's council was originally organized in 1920 (under the church's influence) and was later incorporated under the IRA. Van Stone noted that the council was involved in many aspects of village life, including the settlement of minor disputes between individuals or families which they could not resolve themselves. The council acted as a rule-making and law enforcement body, and although it had no power to enforce its ruling, it was effective because of the pressure of public opinion and the prestige of the council members. In instances where the council must take disciplinary action, there is an attempt to avoid open conflict with the individual or between individuals involved. By the time the council has decided to take disciplinary action the decision is generally unanimous. Conclusions were reached after lengthy discussions. Occasionally formal votes were taken, but generally everyone was in agreement by the time a flatter had been fully discussed. As at Wainwright, if the presence of a villager was required during the course of a meeting, the council marshall went to get him. From Van Stone's account, it is evident that traditional law ways governed the resolution of conflicts. He noted that decisions reached by the council were based on precedent and that the council was loathe to put aside any old customs. Although the traditional laws are still not codified, they are well known by the community, particularly those laws governing hunting behavior and distribution of animals caught (Van Stone 1962).

Kaktovik. Although Kaktovik was classified (page 55) as having a traditional form of government in 1970, Kaktovik may also be an IRA government. Chance (1966) reported that in spite of the rapid changes that had occurred in the village because of relocation and DEW Line construction, the effectiveness of the traditional leader was unimpaired and traditional kinship ties remained strong. The practice of extending kinship privileges to non-kin by means of traditional formal partnerships may have served to integrate non-kin into the community. This may explain why Kaktovik did not formally incorporate as a fourth-class city until 1971.

Anaktuvuk Pass. New communities such as Point Lay, Atkasook, Nuiqsut, and Anaktuvuk Pass, were established within areas which were traditionally used as hunting and fishing camps. Anaktuvuk Pass was the first new town in the Arctic. The settlers represented two interrelated nomadic groups who decided to form a community because they wanted their children to learn English and to trade with the trapper who had recently arrived in the area. R. Rausch, who was a biologist with the Arctic Health Research Center at the time, was present in the Brooks Range when the Killik segment joined the Tulugak group in the summer of 1949. He reported that they knew no English and existed almost exclusively by hunting (Rausch 1951). In 1960 two families living 20 miles north of the village were the last of the two original groups to move into town.

The impetus for **formal** incorporation of Anaktuvuk Pass as a fourth class city in ?947 has not been ascertained, but it was a year or two years

after the church was constructed and three years before a school was es-**Gubser** (1965) described the two original groups as factions but noted that internal tension between the two groups should not be considered a dominating force in Anaktuvuk Pass social and cultural affairs. Marriages occurred between members of both factions, and some persons changed their alignments from one group to another. When group effort was required or the group as a whole was threatened, the two factions acted together. Gubser commented that the factions were most evident in political conflicts and times of economic crisis. M.S. Cline, who was a school teacher at Anaktuvuk Pass from 1967 to 1969, reported that the two factions had persisted and that the Killik faction was larger and thus in a position to dominate the Tulugak faction. He described a conflict in 1967 that split the villagers and council along factional lines The disagreement arose when the community was faced with a shortage of willow which was the fuel source. One group wanted to move the village to Umiat, about 100 miles north, while the other group wanted to remain at Anaktuvuk Pass. Government officials were called in to assist in finding a solution, and they proposed that those who agreed to remain would be provided fuel oil, stoves, insulation, and plywood for their houses while those who moved would get no assistance.

Cline also described the village council as it was functioning in 1969. He stated that a primary function of the council was representing the people to the "Tanik" (non-Inupiat, white) world. The council dealt mainly with Bureau of Indian Affairs and state matters involving the village. Minor village affairs were handled as needed, but major policies

were decided at general meetings attended by all adult residents. As in other villages, the **Anatuvuk** Pass council intervened in matters of social control that go beyond the realm **of** most city councils. They helped settle marital difficulties, alcohol problems, and other individual conflicts which could not be privately resolved.

Barrow. The Inupiat from Utqkeavik and Nuvuk united to form the present community of Barrow. It was also populated by members of various inland groups and southern coastal communities who migrated to Barrow during the commercial whaling period. During the military construction period, Barrow attracted more Inupiat from Wainwright and other communities. More so than elsewhere, Barrow residents have kinship ties to all other arctic communities. In spite of the diverse population in Barrow, blending has been smooth since they all share a common cultural background.

This unity was **clearly** demonstrated in an incident that stimulated regional unification. The event, called the "Duck-In", occurred **in** the spring of 1961 when 138 **Barrow** hunters shot eider ducks after two hunters had been arrested by federal agents for hunting fowl out of season. The rights of the Inupiat to hunt and fish in their aboriginal homeland had never been challenged until **1961**. However, the International Bird Treaty of 1916 between the United States, Great **Britian**, and in 1937 by Mexico, threatened this basic freedom. The treaty allowed Eskimos and Indians to take a few species of seabirds in any season but prohibited **the** harvest of other migratory fowl from March 10 to September 1. Birds which

could be taken were available to only a few coastal communities, and the treaty set the open season on migratory fowl during a time that they were not present along the Arctic coast (Day 1969).

From 1916 to 1961, the Inupiat continued to harvest eiders as they had for thousands of years. Probably few, if any, Inupiat were even aware of the treaty. Yet, 45 years after the treaty was signed, three Barrow Inupiat were arrested for violating it. The enforcement officer was called to a Barrow town meeting, the "Duck-In", where 138 hunters, each with an eider duck in hand and a written statement saying he had taken the fowl out of season, were waiting. A petition had been signed by over 300 Inupiat demanding that President Kennedy issue emergency regulations permitting them to hunt migratory waterfowl for food at any time of the year and that treaty regulations be renegotiated to reflect the Inupiat right to harvest.

Etok (Charlie Edwardsen, Jr.) from Barrow, stated, "We were so well organized that if they had arrested every man in Barrow, the womenfolk were going to be next. An then the children." (Gallagher 1974). Lantis (1973) wrote about the "Duck-In," "This unprecedented display of unity and determination by the men of the community, including a State senator ... a president of the village council, and other leaders, obtained public attention through wide newspaper coverage." The story was carried in all major newspapers with most condemning the enforcement action. The U.S. Attorney representing the Department of Justice declined prosecution of the 138 Inupiat stating, "Although there were definite technical

violations, it is our decision in declining prosecution that since the problems of the federal agencies involved, it is our firm hope that the Eskimo people, having achieved national recognition of their difficulty, will rely in the future on the legislative process rather than intentional violation of federal laws." (Day 1969). With little support from the Department of Justice, the federal Fish and Game Bureau declined to risk an open "shooting war" during the following year's closed season.

The Barrow Inupiat also asserted aboriginal rights to the natural gas in the Naval Petroleum Reserve and requested that their homes be supplied with the fuel. It was already being provided to the five federal installations at Barrow. Lantis (1973) reported that they later did get natural gas for their homes, but it was granted "as a welfare measure."

Summary

Although the village councils are structures after a western municipal governmental model and fulfill the necessary obligations demanded by State laws, they appear to have extended the functions of the council. The Inupiat have been successful in incorporating the council into their traditional values, activities, leadership patterns, and methods of decision making. Traditional lawways, particularly those relating to hunting behavior, have survived. Council members maintain a close identity with the community by continuing to interact with community members. The councils, particularly in the smaller villages, appear to be effective in controlling social behavior and arbitrating interpersonal l

conflicts. The councils tend **to** involve the entire community when major decisions must be made. Although, by law, the councils represent Inupiat and non-Inupiat, participation has been almost exclusively Inupiat. The councils also focus considerable attention on distinctly Native issues. The village councils have demonstrated a willingness and capability to respond to major crisis events. The councils were successfully integrated into the community and were ready to initiate and respond to increasing pressures for regional government development.

Regional Development

The political evolution of regional organization among Alaska Natives was described by Worl (1976) in her testimony before Senator James

Abourezk's Senate Subcommittee on Indian Affairs. Hearings were held throughout the state to discuss the definition of "tribe" as it relates to Alaska Natives. Since the testimony was largely based on Worl's research in Barrow, sections will be abstracted to provide an introduction to the centralized organizations operating in the North Slope Beaufort Sea Region:

Political unification of various tribes within Alaska began when aboriginal land and hunting rights were threatened. Throughout various areas there was a movement towards regionalism. In Southeast Alaska, the Tlingits and Haidas followed by the Athabaskans and the North Slope Eskimos all united against common threats. Regional groups organized themselves on aboriginal concepts of land use and

occupancy patterns within regions. This natural evolution of regionalism in response to impinging forces could have occurred in aboriginal times. If they had, their regional entities would have been known as "tribes", but the fact that they occurred in historical times, they were called "Associations" instead, but the concept remains-the same. It may seem that I am belaboring a point, but I would like to emphasize that the evolution of 12 regional entities was a self-initiated action. If the groups had decided to call themselves "tribes" it would have been as legitimate as calling themselves "Association".

The regional entities were further codified into law with the passage of the Settlement Act. However, there were basic differences with which we are all familiar. I am speaking of the mandated profit-making characteristic. For the purpose of this investigation (definition of tribe) the "membership" limitation defined by law, must be the primary consideration. While the original regional entities included full membership, (of all Natives within a region), the corporations will facilitate the disenfranchisement of children born after the date of the passage of PL 92-203. (Alaska Native Claims Act) Although it is foreseen that some children will inherit "shares", it is also a foregone fact that not everyone, even today shares equitably in the distribution of the economic and political benefits of the Settlement Act in terms of land, monetary income, and the right to vote or be elected to governing board of directors of village and regional corporation. Moreover, it is

just as certain that under present legislation, membership in these native corporations will include non-natives.

Thus, in Alaska we have regional entities which include (?) the self-created regional associations, and the Tlingit and Haida Central Council which is distinct from the other associations because of its previous legislative and judicial history. (2) the profitmaking corporation created under PL 92-203 (3) the regional IRA of the North Slope, the Inupiat Community of the Arctic Slope (4) the North Slope Borough, a state municipal government (5) in addition, Alaska has a number of regional-wide Reserves.

It is my opinion that the North Slope Inupiat took a progressive step in their formation of the North Slope Borough along with their regional IRA. (Tribal Government created under the Indian Reorganization Act) Each Organization had its own function be it a profitmaking orientation or providing governmental services. It is an action that I am certain will be repeated in other rural areas because of the potential benefits. In the words of Joe Upicksoum, President of the Arctic Slope Regional Corporation, "We created a government to take care of governmental functions and to deliver governmental services." Unlike the urban centers where natives are the minority and their influence in municipal governments limited, the North Slope Borough is a predominately Eskimo municipality.

Unquestionably, Alaska Natives are at the threshold of rapid and

significant cultural and social change. The situation in Alaska is complex, but perhaps the most critical factor to note is that Alaska Native Organizations are in a stage of flux. Although, the Settlement Act offers threats of potential conflict within the intercorporate relationships, these relationships and the delegation of functions and powers between regional entities and between local and regional organizations are currently being resolved.

Inupiat Paitot. In November 1961, several months after the "Duck-In" incident, the Northern Inupiat gathered together for the first time since the days of the great trading fairs. Village leaders met in Barrow at a conference named Inupiat Paitot (People's Heritage) to discuss their common problems. They discussed, among other issues, the right to hunt eider ducks and the proposed Project Chariot, which involved a nuclear experiment (later abandoned) to excavate a harbor at Cape Thompson. Other topics of discussion included construction of local high schools so that students would no longer have to leave home for secondary school and the practice by many contractors in the Arctic of importing their labor instead of hiring Eskimos. The introduction to the conference conclusion statement read: "We Inupiat have the same problems in all Now we know this, and we have joined together to solve areas of Alaska. these problems. . . . Our problems are two kinds: (1) Aboriginal land and hunting rights. (2) Economic and social development. " (1-antis 1973).

A second Inupiat conference was held in 1962. Guy Okakok of Barrow, together with a representative of the Association on American Indian

Affairs which had rendered financial support, traveled to the villages. Lantis (1973) stated, "Their communication in English and Eskimo languages of ideas from village to village must have not only sustained people's interest in united action, but achieved some unity in their thoughts and attitudes."

Land rights were of continuing concern. The Inupiat Paitot brought Inupiat concern to the statewide meeting where it agreed to affiliate with the Athabascan's Tanana Indian Conference and the Alaska Native Brotherhood representing the Tlingit and Haida Indians.

Arctic Slope Native Association. The Arctic Slope Native Association (ASNA) was the parent organization of the Inupiat Community of the Arctic Slope (ICAS), the Arctic Slope Regional Corpora{ion (ASRC), and the North Slope Borough (NSB). While Inupiat Paitot included the Inupiat from northwestern and northern Alaska, ASNA (or as it was originally called the North Slope Native Association) would represent only the Native people north of the Brooks Range. The new organization, founded by Etok (Charlie Edwardsen, Jr.), had as it objective the resolution of aboriginal land claims of the Inupiat.

Etok wrote letters to all the villages, and the first meeting at Barrow on January 15, 1966 was attended by more than a hundred people from the region. Etok told the group that the land they had viewed as theirs was not recognized as such by the U.S. government. He told them that the Navy had taken Petroleum Reserve No. 4, the Department of Interior had

taken the Arctic Wildlife Refuge, and that the state and federal government had the power to take even the land on which their houses stood.

He reiterated the legal rights the Inupiat had to the land. Land used and occupied by Alaska Natives was owned under the legal doctrine of "Indian" or "Aboriginal" Title and could not be extinguished until ownership was transferred to the federal government. Noah Itta responded:

I am happy that there are, at last, people taking action to protect the traditional hunting land of the Eskimo; in the past, we have always traveled the coast, the tundra, and the foothills of the mountain to the south in the ever-shifting pursuit of game to feed our families. Now I see these lands will be retained for my people and their children's children. My heart is happy. (Gallagher 1974)

Etok had met the old Tlingit warrior William Paul, Sr., who was the first Alaska Native lawyer and had pioneered the Alaska Native land claims effort since the 1920's. Paul was repeatedly to say to young Native leaders, "The land is yours. Why don't you fight for it?" Etok faced the conflict this challenge created, "To stay the way we are we have to fight. But if we fight, we are no longer the way we are." Etok chose to fight for the land. On January 5, 1966, Etok wrote to William Paul and requested his counsel. William Paul (1966) in behalf of the North Slope Inupiat filed a blanket claim to the U.S. Department of Interior for absolute title to all their aboriginal land, which included land north of the Brooks Range.

ASNA went on to become one of the most powerful regional organizations

in the Alaska Federation of Natives (AFN), which was the statewide Native ASNA stood firm through the land claims battle, contending organi zati on. repeatedly that Congress was settling legal claims to land and not enacting an antipoverty or **social** welfare legislation. ASNA's position was that the land claim settlement must be based on a regional land-loss formula. Under the land-loss formula, each region would receive financial compensation and confirmation of fee title to land in proportion to its aboriginal land holdings within its region which would be extinguished under a settlement act. They advocated that since the Inupiat held aboriginal title to 56.5 million acres, which represented 15 percent of statewide acreage, ASNA should receive a proportionate share, of nine million acres, of the 60 million acres then proposed as the settlement. ASNA broke with the AFN unified front when the AFN board of directors voted for a distribution formula which allocated monetary portion of the settlement based on population.

Under terms of the Alaska Native Claims Settlement Act (85 stat. 688) which passed Congress in 1971, Alaska Native corporations, 12 regional and over 200 villages, would receive 40 million acres, both surface and subsu Village corporations would receive the surface estate to 22 million acres to be divided among the villages according to population. The regional corporations would receive the subsurface title to the 22 million acres patented to the villages and full title to 16 million acres, divided among the regional corporations on the basis of the total area in each region or a land-loss formula rather than on the basis of population. The remaining two million acres would be alloted for Native historical

sites, and for other **communities** which did not qualify for land entitlements or village corporation. The \$462,500,00, to be paid over **an**11-year period from U.S. Treasury funds and an additional \$500,000,000 from two percent of mineral revenues received from state lands, will be divided on a population basis.

An AFN convention was called for the same day that the settlement act was to be signed into law. The Native organizations planned to review the legislation as if they constituted a sovereign nation and then vote on ratification of the "treaty" with the United States. ASNA was not satisfied with a land claims act which they felt was unjust and inequitable. It sent a telegram to President Nixon urging him to veto the legislation. When the roll call vote was taken at the AFN meeting, ASNA was the sole Native organization to cast a negative vote.

The primary effect of ASNA, outside of the land claims resolution, was the political unification of North Slope groups. The Nunamiut (represented by those living in Anaktuvuk Pass), the Inupiat group at Kaktovik (who had closer ties to their Canadian relative at Inuvik), and the coastal Tagiugmiut unified in a centralized organization. This unification was achieved through the village councils, which sent representatives to ASNA meetings. The role of the village councils did not diminish, but greater activity occurred at the regional level. Village councils were increasingly exposed to proposed land claims legislation and new concepts of corporate ownership, land ownership, and resource utilization.

ASNA drew the Inupiat into statewide and national politics as well as interaction with other Native organizations. The local leadership role remained based in traditional patterns; however, the regional organization allowed for increasing participation by younger, more educated Inupiat males to deal with external affairs.

Although the land claims effort had focused on land for hunting and fishing, ASNA viewed the regional corporations role to include the promotion of the health, welfare, education, and economic and social well-being of its stockholders by fostering industrial and economic development. ASNA promoted the establishment of a borough government under state law and a regional IRA tribal government under federal statutes so that leadership responsibilities would be shared.

The Inupiat Community of the Arctic Slope. Not highly publicized or generally well known was the formation of a federally recognized tribal governing body under the Indian Reorganization Act of 1934 (48 Stat. #378), extended to Alaska with the Alaska Act of May 1, 1936. (49 Stat. 1250). The Inupiat Community of the Arctic Slope (ICAS) was established before the North Slope Borough or the Arctic Slope Regional Corporation (ASRC) with the ratification of its constitution and bylaws on August 26, 1971. Of 1,190 qualified Inupiat electors, 541 voted for and 18 voted against their adoption.

The formation of ICAS was originally conceived within ASNA which recognized the merits of forming a region-wide IRA government. The ICAS

was originally designed to manage the political and business affairs of the Inupiat people. The positive powers and authorities of the ICAS flowing from tribal authority include contracting to administer 31A and Indian Health Service (IHS) programs, such as educational, social service, business, and health programs. Additionally, the ICAS has tax exemption possibilities and other potential advantages that have yet to be explored. Although the ICAS has as yet not functioned to its full potential which as yet has not been thoroughly explored, the ramifications can be signi-Possibilities of conflict with the NSB exist. fi cant. Currently, the North Slope Borough is contracting health programs under the authority of the ICAS. ICAS is just now beginning to expand its operation. Clearly, a redundancy of functions could develop, but at this time it appears that the North Slope Borough and ICAS have established a cooperative arrangement to provide services.

The Alaska Native Claims Settlement Act (ANCSA) which provided for the conveyance of both property title and a monetary award in settlement of the Natives' aboriginal claim has been viewed by some Natives as a possible "Termination" vehicle which would sever the federal trust relationship with Alaska Natives. ICAS, together with several Indian legislative acts passed by Congress after 1971, reasserts a federal trust relationship with the Inupiat of the Arctic Slope. Its constitution provides for perpetual membership of Inupiat children.

The Arctic Slope Regional Corporation. The role of the Native regional corporations was specifically mandated under terms of the Alaska Native Claims Settlement Act. The Arctic Slope Regional Corporation (ASRC)

was incorporated to manage and invest its entitlement under the ANCSA of 5.6 million acres and \$36 million, and all other corporate assets on a profit making basis for the benefit of its stockholders. The 5.6 million acres was selected from unrestricted lands outside the 23 million acre National Petroleum Reserve- Alaska and the Arctic Wildlife Refuge. Villages located within the petroleum reserve and wildlife refuge were able to select their corporation surface entitlements within the reserve and refuge. Any Alaska Native who was 1/4 degree or more Indian, Aleut, or Eskimo born on or before the passage of ANCSA, December 18, 1971, was considered eligible to enroll as stockholders. Alaska Natives enrolled to regions where they resided in 1970 or regions where they were born or had lived for an aggregate of 10 or more years. ASRC identified approximately 3,900 stockholders eligible to receive 100 shares of ASRC stocks.

Many largely unresolved questions have been raised about the forces generated by the passage of the land claims act and its effect on the Inupiat life-style. How, whether, and to what extent would the sociocultural characteristics of the Inupiat be transformed or manifested in the new organization? The corporate structure appears to contradict many cf the traditional Inupiat values of sharing, cooperation, and equality. Could the regional and village corporations be compatible with traditional economic subsistence systems and still fulfill their financial obligations? The Inupiat had adamantly maintained throughout the land claims effort that substantial acreage should be transferred and confirmed from aboriginal to fee title. How would the new relationship to the land affect the survival of the Inupiat? Would the regional corporation be

able to avoid the conflict inherent in owning the subsurface estate of 1 and owned by the village corporation? Would the region, bound by a profit-making mandate, be put into the position of having to pressure villages to develop land which they might wish to maintain for subsistence?

ASRC opened for business in Barrow in March 1972. Approximately 3,900 Inupiat were eligible for 100 shares apiece in the corporation. Already this means that not all Arctic Slope Inupiat share equally in the corporation, including Inupiat born after December 18, 1971 who may never be able to participate in the village or regional corporation except by inheritance. Today there are Inupiat who own 100 shares, others who through inheritance own more than 100 shares, and others own less or none at all. Although by law the shares may not be alienated by Inupiat shareholders until 1991, it is considered possible that non-Inupiat may already have access to shares through a trust guardianship arrangement. High birth rates, interracial marriages, and sales of shares after 1991 will further dilute per capita ownership and create further inequities between shareholders.

Land Status Following ANCSA. Like the Migratory Bird Treaty of 1916, the establishment of the 23 million-acre Naval Petroleum Reserve No. 4 (NPR-4) in 1923 meant little to the Inupiat at the time; few even knew of its creation. There was no immediate evident change, and the Inupiat continued to use and occupy land in the reserve.

When mineral exploration in NPR-4 began, the Inupiat participated in the cash employment opportunities as they had during DEW Line construction. However, after exploration and construction activities ceased, the Inupiat were left with scarred and eroded tundra littered with debris and gas drums. They used what gas they could find remaining in the drums for fuel and began to use the drums as land markers.

In 1960, the Arctic National Wildlife Range including 8,9 million acres in the northeast of the Arctic Slope was established. The significance of the petroleum reserve withdrawal in 1923 and the establishment of the 8.9 million-acre Arctic National Wildlife Range in the northeast Arctic in 1960 was not fully realized until the land claims effort began. ASRC was not allowed to select lands within NPR-4 or the Arctic National Wildlife Range. Barrow began to grow but could not expand into NPR-4.

The Alaska Native Allotment Act of 1906 authorized the Secretary of Interior to grant up to 160 acres of land to each qualified Alaska Native applicant. By December 1971, approximately 250 applicants were filed for land in the Arctic region, mostly for sites near the coastal zone from Harrison Bay to Cape Lisburne but also along rivers at traditional land use sites. Because the applicants had to prove they had personally used the sites prior to the establishment of the Naval Petroleum Reserve in 1923, the applications were not accepted, and court action is currently in progress.

Wainwright, Barrow, and Kaktovik were allowed to select their village

surface entitlements from both federal withdrawals, and Atkasook and Nuiqsut were allowed to select lands in NPR-4. Point Lay, outside NPR-4 selected its lands from areas outside federal withdrawals.

The creation of the village of Anaktuvuk Pass and the reestablishment of traditional settlements at Point Lay, Atkasook, and Nuigsut were reversals of the migration and settlement patterns that have characterized rural Alaska in the past. That trend was summarized as follows by Hippier (1969):

There appears to be several stages in this process of agglomeration, some of which are completed and others still under way. With the advent of traders, missionaries and in more recent times, medical and educational practitioners in the outlying areas of Alaska, native Alaskans began to settle in groups near such services to take advantage of them. .. as natives came to need money to buy the newly discovered Euro-American material goods. The population began to concentrate more and more in communities large enough to offer some cash employment.

Anaktuvuk Pass, Point Lay, Atkasook, and Nuiqsut appear to reverse this process of agglomeration. The Nunamiut who had left Barrow in 1930 and 1938 migrated to the Brooks Range continued their nomadic lifestyle until they settled in Anaktuvuk Pass. Point Lay which was an aboriginal use area was resettled in the historic period and Atkasook and Nuiqsut also represent a return to their traditional homeland. While the three

resettled sites were never completely abandoned, the land claims settlement permitted the reestablishment move and construction of new homes.

None of the new communities offered employment opportunities or the amenities of modern living, and life there generally required intense reliance upon subsistence activities.

In 1991 all landholdings of the region and village corporations become taxable to all property taxes, even if the land remains undeveloped. The village corporations, which have limited income, will be under great pressure to develop their land. The predominantly Inupiat North Slope Borough administration and elected assembly undoubtedly had the taxation of Native corporations in 1991 in mind when they adopted the extensive Capital Improvement Program.

The issue of land trust <code>responsibility</code> between the federal government and Alaska Natives will probably be raised. Arnold (1976) offered the <code>fo!-lowing "restrictive"</code> definition <code>of</code> this trust responsibility regarding land and resources: "The exertise of this trust responsibility exists because the lands and resources of Indian tribes and communities are typically held 'in trust' for them by the Department of Interior." Recent events suggest that the trust <code>relation</code> will persist, despite resolution of Native land claims. Recent legislation, such as the Indian Self-Determination and Education Assistance Act (PL 93-638) continues to recognize and extend trust rights to Alaska Natives.

Edwardsen vs. Morton. A complex legal case, Edwardsen vs. Morton, which eventually involved more than 100 defendants, including some of the world's largest oil companies, contractors, and the State of Alaska, began over property rights. In 1971, just prior to the passage of ANCSA, Edwardsen and several other Inupiat filed a class action suit in federal court against Secretary of Interior Morton, arguing that all land dispositions on the North Slope prior to the settlement of their land claims were invalid. Charles Edwardsen, Jr. (Etok) claimed that the Interior Department had been derelict in its responsibility as a trustee in protecting lands claimed by Alaska Natives from third parties and that Inupiat hunting and fishing areas, graveyards, and consecrated areas were damaged by oil- and gas-related activities. Federal District Court Judge Oliver Gasch ruled in 1973 that land disposition and transfer of title could not be attached but that trespass action could be initiated against non-Native users of Alaska lands before December 1971. The decision required that the Interior Department, through the Justice Department, seek trespass damages from firms operating on the slope before passage of the settlement act. Federal attorneys filed the trespass suit in 1975 against 13 major oil companies, the State of Alaska and 112 other indivi dual s.

In June 1977, Judge Fitzgerald of the U.S. district court ruled that the 1971 claims act settled all claims based on aboriginal title, use, and occupancy and granted the defendants' motion to dismiss the trespass case (Matthews 1977). The decision may be appealed.

The North Slope Borough. Creation of the North Slope Borough (NSB) was originally conceived by the Inupiat Leadership as a method to protect the arctic subsistence economy through zoning regulations, a means to select 10 percent of state-selected lands within the region, and a system to provide local services and education through tax revenues from oil development. A petition for incorporation of the North Slope Borough was filed before the State's Local Affairs Agency by ASNA in April 1971.

The creation of a borough government was overwhelmingly supported by the North Slope Inupiat. At the Alaska Local Boundary Commission hearing, Alfred Hopson made this plea for the borough:

Our people lived here before your ancestors ever came to the United States and here we are, begging for some land. The white man has gardens to provide his food. Our apples, our oranges and our potatoes were running around all over the country and we had to follow them if we wanted to eat. The struggle for survival is based on the fact that we needed the whole Arctic Slope to survive. (Shulman 1971)

The boundary commission approved creation of the North Slope Borough in February 1972. The seven major oil companies operating in the area immediately started legal proceedings to halt its formation. The companies had urged the courts to rule that they were deprived of property without due process of law because they owned 98.5 percent of the assessed valuation of the entire borough and would pay nearly all of the taxes while receiving little in the way of benefits (Getches 1973).

Borough formation survived these legal actions and NSB was incorporated in the **summer of** 1972. Like the village council, the borough concept was non-Inupiat. The Inupiat had already demonstrated that they could adapt the council to respond to their traditional values; the question now was whether the borough structure was flexible enough to incorporate those same values **on** a regional scale. The Borough's home-rule charter was patterned directly on those of other borough governments in the state.

Volumes have been written and compiled on the North Slope Borough's operations, CIP projects, financial statements, community inventories, and numerous other reports and surveys. Other than noting the predominant Inupiat population, it might never be known from these reports that the Borough exists as part of a culturally distinct society. The NSB established administrative offices, commissions, committees, and a higher educational institution that reflect the **sociocultural** characteristics of its population.

The Inupiat are the predominant permanent population living in the traditional settlements and, as a result, hold most of the Borough's elected and appointed positions including the borough assembly and its commissions and committees. Naturally enough, the Borough reflects the people's desire to foster the Inupiat culture in all of its programs. This cultural preoccupation is unique in the state's boroughs to the North Slope Borough, and it manifests itself in many ways.

One of the primary incentives to formation of the borough was the desire to control the education of Inupiat youth and to end the practice of having to send students to distant boarding schools. Culturally, the boarding school program had proved disastrous, and when 11 North Slope students were killed in 1971 enroute to the BLA boarding school at Mt. Edgecumbe, dissatisfaction with this system boiled over into a demand for change. The formation of the Borough permitted the establishment of a local school district and high school.

The mayor of the Borough, Eben Hopson, had been denied an education beyond elementary grades and he well expressed the intense emotional attitudes and the hopes of the people for a local school system. His statement on the Inupiat educational philosophy in 1975 received wide publication throughout the state and in educational journals, and portions of it are abstracted below:

We Inupiat are a nation of people occupying the circumpolar Arctic from Siberia through Alaska and Canada to Greenland. We share common values, language, culture, and economic system. Our culture has enabled us to survive when no other man or culture could.

Among our entire international Inupiat, we of the North Slope are the only Inupiat who have achieved true self-government with the formation of the North Slope Borough. We have the greatest opportunity to direct our own destiny as we have for the past millenia.

Possibly the greatest significance of home rule is that it enables us to regain control of the education of our children. . . . Today we have control over our educational system, . . . We must now begin

to assess whether or not our **school** system is truly becoming an Inupiat **school** system, reflecting Inupiat educational philosophies.

Hopson reviewed the <code>assimilationist</code> philosophy of the <code>BIA</code> schools and questioned whether the Borough was <code>simply</code> exercising political control <code>over</code> an educational system that continued to <code>transmit</code> white urban culture. He argued that "Political control over our school must include 'professional control' as well if our academic institutions are to become an Inupiat <code>tradition</code>, values, and ideals." Hopson also assessed the role of teacher and curriculum, stressing the need for <code>Inupiat/English</code> bilingual and <code>bicultural</code> programs and teachers. He went on to chastise the isolationist attitude which characterized most teachers. He urged the desegregation of the privileged class <code>of</code> people who <code>lived</code> in quarters which resembled colonial forts and were subsidized by the Borough. He invited teachers to become contributing members of the community.

The formation of the Inupiat University of the Arctic, funded by the North Slope Borough, further demonstrated the Borough's commitment to the Inupiat language and culture. A primary stated goal of the university was to provide postsecondary education that will enable graduates to live within the traditional subsistence life-style or the urbanized technocratic society. The first president of the institution asserted that the programs would be based on the values and traditions of the indigenous people, and all course work would include as many aspects of Inupiat language and culture as possible (Vaudrin 1975). Although the university has been beset with continuous administrative and financial difficulties, the support of the borough administration and its commit-

to its survival. In January 1977 the borough formed the Inupiat Language Commission (Ordinance 76-31) to further sustain university and community efforts in this area. The Borough already had created the Commission on History and Culture (Ordinance 76-4) to develop a historical record of the land, people, and villages and to evaluate current developments and ongoing programs as they relate to the cultural and historical heritage of the North Slope. In this regard, Commission members have been extensively involved with National Petroleum Reserve- Alaska (NPR-A, formerly PET-4) research activities during the past year.

The Commission on History and Culture and the Borough Planning Commission have worked together to develop a traditional land use inventory to document all the traditional land use areas and historic sites in the North Slope region. The inventories will be used to develop a land use plan and to protect historic sites. This information is also being made available to NPR-A planning groups who will determine the best uses of the land in the reserve. Hopson, who worked on the inventory, stated, "The fact still remains that we, the Inupiat people, base our culture on the environment, nature and the land around us." (North Slope Borough, Planning Department 1976).

The Borough's Fish and Game Management Committee, with an appointed member from each village, was created in direct response to the drastic drop in caribou first reported in 1975 and resulting restrictive state regulations (NSB Resolution Serial No. 10-76). According to NSB Ordinance 76-9,

the **committee** is "to manage its fish and game resources and **to** regulate the harvest of the resources in such a manner as to be consistent with the needs and patterns of usage by residents of the Borough." The committee is also to recommend ordinances to the assembly relating to establishing fish and game reserve areas, recommend open and closed seasons for harvesting fish and game, set quotas and bag limits, and establish methods for hunting.

The Borough established an administrative office of Environmental Protection in 1977 "to provide local input on environmental matters affecting the lifestyle of the residents. . . . " A position of Caribou Protection Officer was created to assess the caribou crisis. The office also investigates other areas of major environmental importance to the Borough, such as offshore and onshore oil exploration, oil field and pipeline development, the gas pipeline, and uses of the pipeline haul road (NSB Ordinance 77-3).

The Federal Liaison Office, based in Washington D.C., was also established in 1977 (NSB Ordinance 77-3). The office was charged with the responsibility of obtaining support for the "protection of our traditional life style" through involvement with various federal agencies. Another cited priority was "insuring that all necessary environmental safeguards are taken prior to the start of any drilling for off-shore oil."

Almost immediately, personnel from these two devoted their undivided attention to the proposed ban on subsistence hunting of the bowhead whale by the International Whaling Commission. The Alaska Eskimo Whaling

Commission was organized through the cooperative effort of the Borough, the regional corporation, and the Barrow Whaling Association to challenge the proposed whaling ban. For the first time in history, Inupiats were members of a U.S. delegation to an international conference. The political sophistication they had gained through the land claims battle and the knowledge they had accumulated through the centuries of whaling argued their case effectively. Because of their efforts, the moratorium will not go into effect during the 1978 spring whaling season, but a quota of 12 whales taken or 18 whales struck was set.

The North Slope Borough also initiated an Arctic Coastal Zone Management Program. The program will assess outer continental **shelf** activities and nearshore and onshore developments and promote cooperative efforts for **an** international arctic coastal zone management program.

Although the North Slope Borough performs the usual functions of a borough government, its interests and activities have demonstrated a commitment to maintaining the traditional values, language, and culture of the Inupiat people. Its commissions, committees, and offices devote much of their time to protecting subsistence activities, subsistence resources, and the environment. Through tax revenues generated by the NSB, the most immediate effect of the Borough which involved a significant portion of its permanent population was the expansion of the wage economy.

Borough administrative personnel requirements and CIP construction created job opportunities in all the villages. ASRC, together with its corporate business subsidiaries and joint venture enterprises, and the village

corporations all created additional job opportunities for their share-holders. Jobs created by the Borough, ASRC, and the village corporations were available to persons who formerly had to leave the villages to obtain seasonal or other employment. The North Slope economy of the 1960's which was primarily subsistence based became a dual or mixed economy including both subsistence and cash. The increasing job opportunities also attracted a non-Inupiat population primarily into Barrow.

While the primary corporate policy of ASRC has been to obtain land title conveyances to which it is entitled under ANSCA, a North Slope Borough priority has been protection of the environment and natural resources on which the Inupiat depend. Through the land claims effort, the northern Inupiat gained a political education to further their objectives. The NSB provided the political vehicle for the northern Inupiat leadership to respond to statewide, national, and international issues such as the North Slope haul road, caribou crisis, and the bowhead whale controversy.

Through the interlocking membership between the NSB Assembly, the ASRC board of directors, the village corporations, and village councils, the Inupiat have maintained effective working relationships to further their common goals. Notably, many of the members are also whaling captains or members of whaling crews.

The Inuit Circumpolar Conference. The NSB initiated efforts to organize the Inuit (the Eskimo people of Alaska, Canada, and Greenland) to discuss their common problems posed by industrialized development threatening their culture and environment. An international conference was

planned to examine **their mutual** concerns **and** to plan for the formation of a permanent international organization.

The first Inuit Circumpolar Conference (ICC) was held in Barrow in June 1977. A primary focus was conservation and protection of the arctic environment with a view toward developing an international policy for the region. The expressed purpose of the conference was stated:

Within this lifetime, the possibility of extensive damage to the fragile environment of the Arctic has become a real threat. To those living in the Arctic, this possibility becomes a threat to the very foundation of Inuit society. As the quest for resources leads the dominant cultures to one of the most promising, unexplored areas of the world, the Arctic Polar region, exchange among Inuit (Inupiat/people) becomes not only important but essential. (North Slope Borough, Environmental Protection Office 1977)

Inupiat delegates from Canada, Greenland, and Alaska and Yupik delegates from south of the Brooks Range attended the conference. Seventeen resolutions were adopted dealing with the organization of an international body and developing an arctic policy with a primary focus on offshore and onshore arctic resource development. The resolutions indicated a primary concern for the protection of subsistence resources within their ecological systems. Other resolutions related to land claims, language, exchange programs, health, education, and technology. An interim committee has continued to meet periodically since June.

It is apparent that an international awareness is developing-among the Eskimos of Alaska, Canada, and Greenland. Increasing interaction, communication, and cooperative efforts have already been noted. Canadian and Greenlandic Inupiat delegates to the ICC supported the Alaska Inupiat throughout the bowhead whaling crisis. One of the Canadian delegates to the December meeting of the International Whaling Commission, Sam Raddi, had also been a delegate to the ICC. An educational exchange program has already begun between Alaska and Greenland, and additionally, the Borough's Inupiat Language Commission is working to develop a circumpolar orthography. Financial support has been extended by ASRC to the Committee for Original Peoples Entitlement (COPE) of Inuvik to enable COPE to pursue the Canadian Western Arctic Inupiat Land claims settlement.

III. SOCIOECONOMIC SUBSISTENCE PATTERNS

<u>Subsistence Issues</u>

In the past few years the term "subsistence" has received considerable attention, especially in Alaska where indigenous people still depend on a hunting and fishing economy. Recent subsistence issues include the decline of the caribou population and resulting restrictive regulations; the bowhead whale controversy; the interests of environmentalists, which often conflict with subsistence needs; current (d) (2) lands legislation; and conflicts created by oil and gas exploration and development.

Current pending legislation under Section D-2 of the Alaska Native Land Claims Act which will prescribe the use of federal public lands in Alaska has drawn national attention to subsistence. Even as scientists, policy makers, and Natives discuss subsistence, its definition remains elusive. The subsistence issues on the North Slope relate to petroleum exploration and development activities, and to the increasing legislative and regulatory actions from the state, national, and international level. The most notable and emotional issues were the caribou and bowhead whaling crises.

The Caribou Crisis. An aerial photo census of the Western Arctic Caribou Herd in 1970 estimated a minimum population of 242,000. Alaska Department of Fish and Game reports in 1969 had indicated the annual harvest of 25,000 caribou from the western herd as "average" and "normal."

A 1973 borough inquiry about a possible commercial harvest

at Nuiqsut was favorably met by the Department of Fish and Game as follows:

Your idea is interesting and I feel that if the hunting were kept at the proper level the herd might support it. The western Arctic herd is quite large now, and kill has probably declined in the past few years because fewer people are feeding dogs. (LeResche 1973)

The 1974 harvest was cited as "below normal" in a Department of Fish and Game report (Davis et al. 1976). A 1975 census established the maximum number of animals in the herd at that time at 100,000. By July 1976, the estimate had dropped to 50,000 caribou.

Another Fish and Game publication (1976) attributed the decline to human use and wolves:

From data that are now available, it is apparent this herd has declined to its present size because of excessive use of caribou by humans, in combination with the significant impact of natural mortality including predation, especially by wolves. . .

Significantly, **Fish** and Game absolved sport hunters and **the** oil pipeline and related activities as causal:

Because of the region's remoteness, there has been little hunting in the area by conventional recreational hunters. . . .

It seems **obvious** to place some of the blame for the decline on construction of the **Trans-Alaska** pipeline. However, there is no evidence that the two events are related. (Alaska Fish and Game 1976)

The Western Arctic Caribou Herd was a major source of meat and raw materials for boots, parkas, and mats until the caribou crisis. Commercial meats were sold in village stores on an extremely limited basis, if available at all. Until July 1976, Barrow, a community with a population of nearly 3,000, did not have a store with a meat department. Caribou meat is prized by the Inupiat above all others, even high-grade beef is judged as "too fatty" in comparison. Caribou is eaten boiled, frozen, and dried. Even the stomach lining and bone marrow are eaten, and the back fat is used in a delicacy called Eskimo ice cream.

In 1976 the State instituted the first regulations ever imposed on the harvest of arctic caribou. Permits were allocated to the residents of the villages based on population, availability of alternate food sources, and local employment opportunities. Sportsmen in Fairbanks reacted and filed a suit seeking to enjoin the allocation of permits. The Inupiat were prohibited from hunting caribou until the action was resolved. Permits were again issued in the fall of 1977.

The Borough's Fish and Game Management Committee was established in 1976 in response to the State's decision to limit the taking of caribou to 3,000 from the Western Arctic Herd in 1976. The Inupiat challenged the reliability of the count, theorizing that caribou from the Western Herd

were stranded with the Porcupine Herd east of the trans-Alaska pipeline and haul road. The committee felt that construction activities and heavy traffic along the road may have interrupted normal migration and interaction between the herds. According to the Borough's Arctic Coastal Zone Management Newsletter, the Borough has been researching Alyeska's liability and the possibility of compensation from a \$100 million liability fund created by the Trans-Alaska Authorization Act of 1973.

Changes in wildlife populations can affect the settlement patterns of hunting and fishing societies. During the commercial whaling period, the disappearance of the Nunamiut from the Arctic tundra was attributed to the decline of the caribou. In the present, period, the limitation on caribou hunting can be expected to increase the Inupiat's dependence on a cash economy. Hunting pressures on other resources can also be anticipated.

The Bowhead Whale Controversy. In June 1977 the International Whaling Commission (IWC) voted to cancel the right of Native people to harvest bowhead whales. The Inupiat challenged the validity of the scientific evidence used by the IWC to support the moratorium. Seventy-two whaling captains from nine communities met in Barrow in Late August 1977 and organized the Alaska Eskimo Whaling Commission (AEWC). Jake Adams, a young whaling captain, borough assemblyman, and land chief for the regional corporation was later elected as chairman. All 72 whaling captains went to Tokyo in December 1977 as part of the United States delegation to the IWC to lift the ban. Among the official delegates were NSB Mayor Eben Hopson,

AEWC Chairman, **Jake** Adams, and Arnold Brewer, Sr., President of the Barrow Whaling Association. After considerable negotiation, the Inupiat whalers reluctantly agreed to 18 whales struck or 12 landed as their quota.

The AEWC has adopted its own whaling regulations and is currently attemting to obtain state support through the legislature to conduct a scientific study of the bowhead whale population. The commission is also continuing its efforts to restore a full subsistence hunt without the restrictive quota, which they view as inadequate to meet their nutritional needs.

The **bowhead** whale, more than any other resource, is an integral element of Inupiat culture and society. The cooperative hunting efforts and the communal patterns **of** sharing form the foundation of Inupiat society. Continued limitation on hunting the **bowhead** whale and caribou hunting threaten the survival of Inupiat culture and the organization of their society. Restriction on the taking of bowhead whales and caribou have caused social and psychological stress at both the individual and community levels.

Petroleum Exploration and Development Activities. Besides the possible impact of oil- and gas-related activities on land animals and their habitat discussed earlier, there is great anxiety among the Inupiat about the effects of petroleum exploration on fisheries. They have repeatedly reported finding dead fish or a depleted number of fish in lakes, which they attribute to seismic exploration activities.

During a public hearing at Barrow on October 27, 1976 on regulations of the Naval Petroleum Reserves Production Act, ASRC urged protection of subsistence resources and that steps be taken to protect the fisheries. At a meeting in Anchorage on February 8-9, 1977 with members of the National Petroleum Reserve, Alaska's Land Use Task Force, North Slope representatives expressed their concern that exploratory work, seismic and drilling activities, and dewatering had adversely affected the fish populations in lakes. They further charged that caribou were becoming entangled in wires that were left by seismic crews, that wolverine dens had been bull-dozed, and that aerial surveys might be disrupting caribou, birds, and other wildlife pattersn.

During 1977 jurisdiction of the National Petroleum Reserve in Alaska, formerly known as Petroleum Reserve Number 4 located in the North Slope, was transferred from the Navy to the Interior Department. The Naval Petroleum Reserves Production Act of 1976, Public Law 94-258, allowed petroleum exploration of the reserve but prohibited development until authorized by Congress. The Act directed the Secretary of Interior to establish a task force to conduct a study to determine the values of, and best uses for the lands contained in the reserve. The study was to consider the Natives who live in or depend upon the reserve lands, the scenic, historical, recreational, fish and wildlife, and wilderness values, in addition to the mineral potential. While the task force will recommend the priority of land use, Congress will ultimately decide the final designation and disposition of the 23 million acre reserve. Since the Inupiat are highly dependent on the inland resources and continue to

use the inland areas extensively, the fate of their subsistence lifestyle can be largely determined by Congressional action. It is not known whether the Inupiat will continue to have an unrestricted access and use of the inland areas as they do today. Large scale petroleum development within the reserve is also conceivable. Development could be expected to have impacts on the environment, the migratory game as well as the Inupiat.

Offshore petroleum activities have also been resisted by the people in the region. A joint letter from ASRC and the NSB to the Alaska District Corp of Engineers expressed an objection to Union Oil's proposed construction of an ice island at Jones Island. NSB and ASRC were not convinced that the technology existed to safely proceed with the project and noted that the impact on the subsistence economy had not been assessed (Adams and Hopson 1975). Additionally, the Nuiqsut village corporation was concerned about the effects of the project on fish migrations. Recent proposed seismic refraction studies using explosives in the Beaufort and Chukchi Seas were also opposed by the Borough because of the potential threat to the subsistence resource base and damage to the ecosystem (Rosenstein 1977).

The NSB administration has also taken a firm position against offshore development:

"We, the Eskimo people of the Arctic, are opposed to offshore drilling in the Beaufort Sea, or elsewhere offshore in the Arctic. . . We have much to lose: our food chain, our homeland, our life as a

people. .. " (Hopson, 1976)

The villages of Nuiqsut and Kaktovik which are the communities closest to proposed BeauFort Sea OCS development oppose any oil development activity. Both communities passed resolutions (1978) contending that oil development threatens their subsistence resources. They also noted that benefits to the local residents from Prudhoe Bay oil development and exploratory activities at Harrison Bay have been extremely limited. Currently, employment at Prudhoe Say is limited to two persons from Nuiqsut and none from Kaktovik.

The North Slope Haul Road was turned over to the State of Alaska from Alyeska Pipeline Company after the trans-Alaska pipeline construction was completed. It was generally presumed that the haul road would be open for general public use. However, both the state administration and the North Slope Borough questioned the value and costs of maintaining unrestricted public access to the road. The North Slope Borough opposed the opening of the haul road north of the Yukon to the general public citing an estimated cost of \$20 million annually to maintain the road as an extreme fiscal burden to the state. North Slope Borough Mayor Hopson (1978) also expressed concern about the adverse effects of the road and traffic to the environment and subsistence resources. He noted that the road and pipeline had already affected caribou migration and group for-Hopson pointed out the potential damage to the fish mation patterns. migration caused by plugged culverts which were used instead of bridges. The North Slope Borough recommended limiting the road to industrial use

and a controlled tour bus operation on a seasonal basis. Above all, the North Slope Borough appeared **to** be concerned about another threat to their subsistence lifestyle and the potential damage to the wildlife resources and the Inupiat traditional land use sites. They recommended that the management system be designed to protect and enhance Native cultures.

At the present time, the Inupiat subsistence lifestyle appears to be threatened unlike any other period of time. The limitations on subsistence harvest imposed by the caribou and bowhead whale hunting restrictions, the potential damage to the environment and wildlife and fisheries posed by petroleum exploration and development both on and offshore together with an increasing traffic to the North Slope by sports hunters by air transportation and possibly on the haul road endanger the Inupiat sociocultural system. Worl (1978) attributed the persistence of the Inupiat culture through the past development periods to the continued Inupiat: environment relationship. She noted that the direct relationship formed the basis of Inupiat social and cultural systems.

Worl's (1978) study of subsistence, in which she proposed included three basic elements: economic, social, and cultural, utilized a qualitative approach. While she recognized the quantifiable variables of subsistence in reference to the resource population, the harvest, and the expenditure of time and financial costs, she noted that quantification could not add significantly to an analysis of the dynamic interactions and changes that occur in the human ecological system nor to holistic

understanding of ecological interactions between the human social and cultural systems and their environment. She added that an inadequately based quantification might advance misleading interpretation. A quantitative subsistence study of an entire socioeconomic system and its interrelationship with a monetary economy integrated within the social and cultural system awaits further research.

Subsistence Elements

Contemporary subsistence systems in the North Slope region are composed of three basic interrelated elements--economic, social, and cultural. Social scientists have traditionally viewed subsistence solely in terms of hunting and fishing activities to satisfy the basic physical needs for food, clothing, and shelter. However, it is now recognized that the methods by which a group organizes itself to appropriate the resources affects the overall harvesting patterns. The adoption of the term socioeconomic is utilized to designate the social unit engaged in the economic activities of subsistence.

Economic Aspects of Subsistence. Presently, the economic aspects of subsistence relate to the appropriation of natural resources, primarily food and clothing. Modern equipment and supplies require money, so contemporary economic subsistence systems in the Arctic are interrelated with the monetary economy. The present economy has been described as "mixed" or "dual." Analytically, the economic systems can be held distinct, but the Inupiat experience demonstrates an interrelationship of the two economic systems.

Worl (1978) described the current patterns which may be utilized singly or in combination to obtain cash:

The subsistence participant may alternate between subsistence activities and cash employment. This method may take various forms, with the subsistence participant working part time or on a temporary job.

Or the hunter may have a position whereby he works for a short period and is off for another period. Other forms involve seasonal employment during construction periods. Another pattern is that of the hunter who works for a period, quits his employment during peak subsistence periods, and then seeks other employment.

The subsistence participant may receive financial support from one or more relatives, a spouse, or a hunting partner. A common pattern is for the wife to seek employment while the husband devotes the greater part of his time to subsistence-related activities.

Another observed pattern is where one member of the family works while other members hunt and fish, Family members often alternate between the enterprises. It is also common for a woman to be financial sponsor for her brother or father's subsistence or whaling activities. The sponsor may provide cash directly to the subsistence participant, or he or she may furnish equipment and supplies in exchange for sharing in the subsistence harvest. A financial sponsor may establish reciprocal relations with one or more hunters.

The subsistence participant may also sell or trade his surplus products for other subsistence goods, or trade for other items such as ammunition or gas. The object of selling Native goods between the Inupiat is the maintenance of the subsistence system, not financial gain or profit. The cost of the Native product Is not related to actual harvest or production expenditures but to an informal determination of the level the community members can afford.

By-products or raw materials from **the** harvested resource may be used directly by the subsistence participant or his wife for cash income from the sale of arts and crafts or Inupiat clothing or footwear. Raw material, such as baleen, furs, or bones may **be** sold or traded directly **to** a craftsman. The arts and crafts cottage industry is an important source of cash income.

A subsistence trapper may sell his furs to commercial buyers, but there is also a significant internal traffic in furs used for production of Inupiat clothing, which has tested far superior to commercial clothing.

Worl further noted that interrelationship of the economies has facilitated the survival of the Inupiat culture and that cash income opportunities have remained compatible with the subsistence system.

<u>The Socioeconomic Unit.</u> The appropriation of resources is achieved through art organized system of social relations. Spencer (1959) suggested

that the Eskimo family was the key to understanding the sociology of the Barrow Eskimo. He noted that the Eskimo culture tried to raise individuals as useful members of the family, which was the basic economic unit, by promoting cooperation and a level of equality between members of the Hippier (1969) believed that the family explains the cultural group. persistence of the Eskimo. Burch (1975) characterized Eskimo societies in terms of interrelated domestic and local families that together constituted a social network. He noted that **major** subsistence efforts by males, even in 1970 in the villages, were carried out either on an individual basis or in terms of kin-based hunting and fishing crews. Burch also describes Barrow, which has had the greatest and most intense contact with white influences, as exhibiting a high degree of organizational continuity.

Worl, in her recent study of North Slope subsistence, concluded that economic action is conducted by the social unit and that analysis of subsistence must include:

... the production, consumption, and trade of all subsistence products must be considered cumulatively, since the products are exchanged or traded for other subsistence commodities within a network of social relations. To review the harvest of only one subsistence resource independently would not reveal the exchange-and-reciprocity system which is an integral aspect of the total economy.

Worl described the socioeconomic units and roles as occurring in:

- (1) the kin-based level, (2) the trading/hunting partnership,
- (3) the voluntary whaling association, (4) the community, and
- (5) the regional organization. The strength and continuity of defined and structured relations decreases as the scale of smaller to larger socioeconomic unit increases.

With the incorporation of a monetary economy, the roles may now in-(1) Subsistence Harvesters, those who actively engage in subsistence pursuits and related activities within the existing patterns of the division of labor by sex and age; (2) Subsistence Users, those who are recipients of subsistence products through the various sharing mechanisms, or trading or purchasing habits; (3) Financial Sponsors, those who render financial support for subsistence activities. . . The individual role may vary, depending on circumstances, or the individual may combine the functions of more than one role. Subsistence resources and by-products are shared by the majority of people in all communities, but the role of sharing beneficiary is especially important for senior or physically handicapped citizens who can no longer actively engage it-i subsistence activities. The Financial Sponsor's investment in a subsistence enterprise is not economically comparable to a profit making venture. A whaling captain and/or his supporters may expend up to \$6,500 during a season with no financial gain to themselves. The return cannot be analyzed in quantitative measurements, but

rather in qualitative conceptual categories which escape formal economic analysis. (Worl 1978)

Cultural Values of Subsistence. Cultural values are the most elusive element of subsistence; yet if subsistence appears to be threatened, its importance to the culture is most strongly defended. Evaluated solely in monetary terms, it is likely that subsistence would be judged as a net loss venture. However, it is the absence of economic rationale among participants that may help to explain their cultural values and emotional attachment to the land and environment. The umealik (whaling captain) may spend as much as \$6,500 to support his crew and activities associated with whaling because this, not monetary gain, gives him status in the community.

Cultural elements reflect the environment with which a **group is** interacting. The Inupiat believe that their cultural survival is based on a direct and intimate relationship with their environment. This is demonstrated in their act and dance forms and by the feasts held during various times of the year. The rituals also serve to integrate the community and strengthen community bonds.

Settlement Patterns and Land Use

The North Slope Borough's Traditional Land Use Inventories describe intensive use of coastal and inland areas. Hopson (North Slope Borough 1976) documented more than 140 sites in the Tasikpak Lake and Nuigsut

areas alone. The listing includes both contemporary and historic sites of cabins; graves; cemeteries; ruins (including sod houses); fishing, trapping, hunting, and camping areas; ice cellars; and other important resource sites. The report cited 107 persons who lived within these areas during some part of their lives during the last 170 years. The wide range of the occupants' ages suggests that the areas were used even when the caribou population was quite low, and the number of people involved suggests extensive use. The sites are primarily located inland along rivers and lakes, so 119 of the ?40 sites are listed as fishing areas,

Although the populations are centered in permanent communities, the inventory demonstrates a continuing use of inland areas. Fish camps are generally occupied by various members of a family from spring through Most families leave their permanent homes in May, or as soon as school is out, and return when school begins again in September or Octo-Fish camps may be continuously occupied throughout the summer, or ber. they may be visited periodically. Husbands often leave their wives and children at the fish camps during the day or week to work in town but return on weekends or evenings, depending on the distance. Many Native Allotment applications, discussed earlier, were made on traditional family fishing sites. Inland areas are also used as temporary campsites, which may be frequented by various family groups throughout the year. Hopson's work also identified defined, consistently used access routes between campsites, fish camps, and the permanent communities as well as major historic trails that are still used.

The number of sites and extensive access routes identified by the inventory testify to **the** high degree of mobility of the Inupiat. These inland areas are probably utilized to near the extent they were in the aboriginal period and certainly more than during the early historic period when the population had suffered a drastic decline. With the aid of the snow machines, which have replaced the dog teams, a hunter may range hundreds of miles away from his permanent settlement. Additionally, air charter flights are available to many of the fish camps.

The following account of subsistence use is largely drawn from **Worl's** 1978 study. The primary subsistence activities in inland and coastal areas are caribou hunting, fishing, fowling, and trapping. The inland area is the source of caribou, which provides high protein meat as well as raw material for parkas, boots, and mats. However, since the caribou crisis the Inupiat have had to increase their use of commercial meats.

The principal summer activity at inland camps is gillnetting, primarily for white-fish. Nets can also be used under the ice in winter, Ling cod in the early spring and grayling after freezeup are caught with a hook and line. Enough fish is taken for the family's winter supply and to sell and trade.

Duck hunting remains the dominant coastal activity from spring through fall. Some families move out to the camps in the spring and remain until the fall migration has ended. The inland region also provides an abundant source of other fowl. Although fowl is not a major subsistence item, the meat and eggs are an important dietary supplement.

During winter, trapping is done in the inland area for fox, wolf, wolverine, and ground squirrel; however, this is less a subsistence activity than a supplement to cash income. Trapping can be fairly lucrative, depending on the intensity of the pursuit. Many high school boys have traplines that they tend after school and on weekends.

Ice Hunting

The following account is from Worl (1978) with a few changes and deletions,

The essence of contemporary Inupiat culture is nowhere as evident as in the whaling complex. Whaling, governed by patterns of cooperation and an elaborate structured system of sharing and distribution, serves to integrate the community as a social and cultural unit. The sharing and distribution of the whale to other communities strengthens ties with those communities and families. For the individual crew member, the exhilarating experience of the chase and sense of accomplishment when a whale has been caught can be summed up by one whaler's statement: "There is no greater reward than knowing your whale has fed the community."

The Association of Whaling Captains is a modern version of a traditional organization. It evolved from the aboriginal karigi (men's meeting house). Today, the association's membership includes all umialgich (whaling captains). They meet each year in early April before the whaling season to discuss the rules which govern the whale hunt and distribution and to determine if they are still acceptable to all the captains, Although some rules are never codified, they are accepted, e.g., snow

machines are not used too close **to the** camps since the noise frightens the whales. They also discuss any problems from the previous season, distribute a **list of** each captain's identification mark for his property, and make plans for construction of the ice trail out to the leads.

Whaling is an expensive undertaking, as the following list, which does not include all necessary items, shows:

Snow machine	\$2,000.00
SI ed	250. 00
Tent, frame	200, 00
Camp Equipment	200, 00
Gas, food, bombs	2, 000. 00
CI othi ng	300.00
Ugruk skins \$50 each x 6	300, 00
Skin sewing for umiaq	300.00
Umiak frame	600.00
Tots 1	\$6, 150. 00

As in the past, only the wealthy can afford to support an average-sized crew of eight during the whaling season, which may last up to six weeks. Some captains pay their crew members a token sum, while some pay more or nothing. Other costs assumed by the successful captains include hosting a feast for the entire community when a whale has been caught. Also, a successful captain and his wife must sponsor the summer feast called Nalukataq for the community if he caught a whale. The costs for each feast may range up to \$1,000.

The total labor force actively and steadily engaged during the summer whaling season can Involve more than 500 people, not including the Nuiqsut and Kaktovik crews engaging in fall whaling. Each crew requires eight men, one or more women, perhaps a young apprentice, older women who prepare and sew the ugruk (bearded seal) skins for the Umiak, and up to 50 or 60 people intermittently involved to pull the whale up onto the beach and butcher it. This number may be even greater since as many as 20 men may be considered members of one crew but only participate periodically during the season.

Preparation for whaling begins with the hunting of ugruk (bearded seals), primarily during June and July but also in October and November and occasionally through the winter. The bearded seal is of particular value to the whalers because its skin is used to cover the umiak and for boot soles. Seals are also important for their meat, oil, and skins used for parkas which are mostly sold. The traditional umiak remains superior to all other types of boats because of its light weight and quietness in the water. A few crews have tried aluminum skiffs, but generally they are considered too noisy.

The appearance of seals and success of the hunt depends on the presence of sea ice. Hunting conditions are best when a lead is narrow and the migrating ugruk are concentrated in this area, Hunting is very poor if the ice breaks up and the seals disperse, Nelson (1969) gave an extensive description of the various hunting techniques, including breathinghole hunting, ice-edge sealing, sleeping-seal hunting, and hunting by umiak--all of which are employed along the coast. The bearded seal is

divided between the participating crew members with the skin going to the owner of the boat.

Many other tasks are completed before whaling actually begins. Ice cellars are constructed, expanded, or renovated, These cellars are built approximately 15 feet down into the permafrost where whale meat can be stored for as long as two years. During March and early April, sleds are constructed or repaired, all whaling equipment is meticulously cleaned, and the umiak skin is cleaned or replaced,

The whaling season begins in early April in Point Hope and a few weeks later in Wainwright and Barrow. The arrival of the snowbirds is the first sign that the opening of the whaling season is near. People begin scanning the horizon for evidence of a lead opening. Surveys are made of the ice pack to map out and construct trails to selected camp areas. Wedging out a trail through several miles of sea ice is arduous, and knowledge of the sea-ice environment is imperative. The captain must check the surface of the ice for cracks and flaws to insure the safety of his crew. Camps are moved in the event of dangerous changes in the ice. The Inupiat must be able to understand and predict the movement of the sea ice, which is impacted by both wind and sea currents.

Although camp life on the ice is laborious, it can also be enjoyable,
The division of labor is well defined between the sexes. Lookouts are
posted, and many tedious hours are spent patiently watching for the arrival of the bowhead whale. Seal, migratory fowl, and ducks are also obtained during this period. Meat not eaten by the crew is shared with

their families. When a whale is finally spotted, the whalers' knowledge of the whale's behavior must be as extensive as their knowledge of the ice. They must be able to predict the whale's movement as they pursue the 30- to 60-foot whale(weighing between half a ton to one ton a foot) in their tiny boats. They must be able to forecast where the whale will surface and then maneuver the umiak so that the harpooner can get a good shot into a vital organ.

Once the whale has been struck and the take is assured, word spreads quickly through the camps and community. Several crews rush to assist the successful crew in towing the massive whale (which can weigh a half ton to a ton per foot) to the ice. A crew member is dispatched to the village to raise the captain's flag over his house. In Barrow an announcement is made over the local radio station, Offices, schools, and homes empty as people rush to the camp to assist the whaling crew. All those who assist are given fresh muktuk (skin with a layer of blubber) and also receive a share of the whale meat.

Rules governing sectioning of the whale and sharing and distributing patterns vary from community to community, but they are well defined and strictly followed. The most complex system, which most likely has remained the most conservative and has its roots in great antiquity, is at Point Hope. Barrow's method is simpler and probably reflects the commercial whaling influence and adaptation to an increasing population, One whaling captain recently remarked that sharing a whale in Barrow is now like sharing a seal,

The meat and **muktuk** are important sources of protein and other nutrients for people throughout the **entire** North Slope **area. Other** edible parts are the white gum material from the base **of** the baleen, the liver, brain, heart, and kidneys. The baleen and **shale** bone **are** important **for** arts and craft products **which** may be sold.

Sharing begins with distribution and a feast on the ice which progresses to a feast at the captain's house. The captain's wife may select elderly members of the community and those known to be in need and distribute additional shares to them. Subsequent feasts include the nalukataq (captains' celebration) in June sponsored by successful captains. This feast is a time of great festivity with the traditional blanket toss and Inupiat dancing. Formal Thanksgiving and Christmas feasts are served to community members, and muktuk, whale meat, and fish are distributed to all families. A family may receive one to three boxes of fish and meat weighing up to one hundred pounds each. In Point Hope a special feast of whale tails is held in the fall when the first "slush ice" forms in the ocean.

The most important subsistence activities conducted on and from the ice are whaling; hunting ugruk and other seals, walrus, polar bears, and ducks; and fishing. As previously mentioned, some of these activities may coincide with the whaling season but are secondary when the whales are migrating. Smaller sea mammals are also harvested at other times, but with the exception of duck hunting, they depend on the presence of ice.

Beluga herds (white whales) generally arrive prior to and with the bow-heads. They are hunted from the ice edge or from umiaks. There have been rare occasions when belugas have been trapped in the ice, and hunters were able to catch 20 or 30 at a time. One beluga provides several hundred pounds of meat, and they can be important when the bow-head catch is low.

The best season for walrus hunting is during July and August, and some families leave inland camps to participate, Walrus commonly lie sleeping on the ice floes and are hunted from umiaks. Crews must exercise extreme caution hunting among the floes lest they get caught and carried away with the moving ice. Although the walrus hunt is maximized if several crews joint together, there is indication that the present walrus hunt is pursued by a single crew. The meat, blubber, and skin are divided between the crew members. The ivory tusks belong to the owner of the boat whether or not he was on the hunt, The walrus, which may weigh asmuch as 2,000 pounds, is distributed throughout the extended family. The range of sharing became apparent in the summer of 1975 when an epidemiologic? investigation was initiated after eight people in Barrow got trichinosis, The investigation involved individuals from 23 different nuclear families who had all shared in the same walrus.

The catch from marine fishing activities is not as significant as that from fresh-water fishing. It is not considered a major subsistence resource and is conducted mostly by older people and children. In early fall after the sea ice has formed, they walk a short distance from the

shore to fish through ice holes. Tom cod is **caught** both in fall and **in early** spring.

Most polar bears are killed incidental **to** other activities. Polar bear meat **is** highly prized, and the fur is important because it is waterproof,

Interethnic Relations

Reviewing the historical literature, one finds that the Native population of arctic Alaska was viewed as aberrant in most respects and part of the resources to be exploited, and often they were. The Russians were the first Westerners to reach the sub-Arctic, beginning in the 1700's in areas inhabited by the Aleuts and the Yupik Eskimos of southwest Alaska. These groups were also the first to experience contact with the whaling fleet, which eventually pushed northward through the Bering Straits to the Mackenzie River delta.

These early contacts, particularly in southwest Alaska, were less than harmonious. The greatest impact was the elimination of large segments of the indigenous population by murder and disease. Whole villages were pressed into slavery by the Russians and forced to assist in the depletion of the natural resources they depended upon for their own survival. Later contacts further north with the Yankee whalemen were a bit less severe, but the goal remained the same: exploit the resources upon which the Native population depends while using them as a key tool,

This pattern of conquering Native-held lands in America and settling them with often less than savory elements of Europe, Asia, and the east coast of the United States is of great significance in Alaska. From what is now known of early cultural contact situations and the role of continuous contact in shaping new directions for indigenous people, it is important to recognize the influence on these Native peoples of their earliest lessons in the behavior of Western man and the model of "civilization" they provided. The majority of these men were not bold, courageous adventurers, but instead were often rapacious, ruthless, and avaricious. They had been thrust out to fringes of their own society, outcasts among their countrymen except as sources of furs, minerals, and information as explorers of frontier areas.

Available data on the relations between the men of the whaling fleet and the Inupiat are sparse but at about the same time (late 1800's) accounts of whaling voyages and exploration became popular and detailed scientific description of indigenous peoples began. Two categories of literature therefore emerged--accounts of whaling experiences and ethnographic descriptions of the Inupiat. Literature in the first category mainly treats information about the Inupiat as a "sideshow" of alien and repugnant life-styles, customs, and appearance. This Information is mostly useful as a basis for understanding the interaction between the two groups. Mention is also made of the Inupiat as a hunter, quide, and as a crewman for the whaler. Data from the second category focuses on the description of the Inupiat as a compact self-contained cultural group, the nature of this material, there is little mention of Inupiat contact with outsiders.

John Murdoch's description of the Point Barrow Inupiat is one such work. He briefly recounted contact with the Inupiat, beginning with an 1826 visit from a barge of the HMS Blossom, under the command of F.W. Beechey, and with the Plover in 1837. These were followed by sporadic contacts varying from a few days to a number of weeks until the Plover over wintered in 1852-53 and 1853-54, during which ", , , the officers and crew, after some misunderstanding and skirmishes, established very friendly and sociable relationships with the natives." Also, that "... though there was considerable intercourse between the sailors and the Eskimo women, there are now no people living at either the village who we could be sure were born from such intercourse." (Murdoch 1892. Pp. 52-53)

The year 1854 seems to have been the turning point of contact in northern Alaska. The whaling fleet penetrated to Barrow and began years of continuous contact and trade. Murdoch seemed to think that the Inupiat remained culturally remote from their white visitors for the most part and showed little inclination to change, being essentially a conservative people. Murdoch disagreed with Petroff (1884) who stated that the Barrow Inupiat regulated their movements according to the whaling fleet location and proximity. Murdoch does mention the cessation of autumn whaling for themselves, "possibly on account of the presence of the whaling fleet at that season." Following are some excerpts from Murdochis work that illustrate contacts between the sailors and the Inupiat:

. . . The one unmitigated evil of their intercourse with the whites has been the introduction of spirits, , . . Our two years of friendly relations with these people were greatly to their advantage. . . . In all their intercourse with the whites they have learned a little English, chiefly a few oathes and exclamations like, 'Get out of here!'. , , (Murdoch 1892)

A more contemporary book covering the periods 1884 through the 1940's was written by Charles Brewer. Entitled Fifty Years Below Zero, this popular book is still in print and still sold at his son's store in Barrow. It chronicles his life in the Barrow area as a whaling entrepreneur and documents the effects of that industry on the Inupiat, Brewer covers many facets of change in the Inupiat life. He discussed the spread and effect of the use of liquor and the subsequent debauch of the villages up the coast from Point Hope where a trader introduced it; changes in whaling practices; employment of Inupiat by Brewer and others in commercial shaling; the application of white man's law to the relationships between the Inupiat and the outsiders; the usurping of marriageable women (sometimes married by whalers who wintered over); the unruliness of the whalers from the east coast; the rapid decline in the Inupiat take of whales; the effects of the introduction of religion; and disease and its effects on the population,

Charles Brower was a notable exception to the transient pattern set by most of the non-Inupiat in the Arctic. Borwer became the chief contact for all who came to the northern Alaska coast. He often acted as mediator for the various communities in the Arctic and encroaching outside

world. His occupational experience in the Arctic included being the store owner, chief trader, operator of the shore whaling stations, U.S. Commissioner with the responsibility of taking **the** census, and administering the law when necessary.

Generally, relationships with outside **people** at this time appear **to** have been poor in quality. **With** few exceptions they were episodic, with few of the whalers or traders staying longer than the winter months. The whalers were a diverse lot from many different parts of the world. With rare exceptions they were single, uneducated, and unruly, as evidenced by the journals of the whaling captains, Charles Brewer, and the various member of **the** U.S. Revenue Service.

Sometimes ships were crushed by the ice, and whole crews had to spend the winter or longer on shore. Even during these times when crews were dependent on the good will of the Inupiat, they often acted abominably towards their hosts. Brewer (p. 208) related the wholesale robbing of graves for clothing and wood in the Barrow area. Further south, overwintering whalers and those manning the shore stations are said to have introduced the skill of distilling liquor from molasses and flour to the Natives so that they would have a ready supply themselves. The literature also indicates that there was tremendous competition for eligible women between men in the villages and the men from the whaling ships and shore stations.

Economic Factors

By 1900, areas of economic conflict had already developed between Natives and whites. The whites controlled access to rifles, ammunition, flour, tea, sugar, molasses, cloth, and metal items which the Inuplat wanted and were finding more and more use for in their daily lives. The Inuplat had to deal with traders to obtain these goods, and the principal mediums of exchange were furs or baleen which could be sold in the United States for a handsome profit. This caused a shift in Native hunting patterns from game which could be eaten to furbearers for trading purposes and disrupted the traditional economy.

Not all traders conducted themselves in a reputable manner. It was not uncommon for a trader to obtain a tremendous amount of fur or baleen for literally worthless materials. Many masters of the whaling ships also engaged in trading liquor for furs and baleen in order to compete with others in the area, although several noted that they abhorred this practice. Nevertheless, the transient nature of their contact and their economic motivation cause them to continue to wreak havoc on the local people. (Brewer, 1942)

Employment opportunities in the shore-based commercial whaling stations contributed to the centralization of the population on the coast. Brewer mentioned that some of the members of his own crew were Inupiat either banned from participating in traditional whaling because of taboos or were from the inland.

Social Factors

There were numerous areas of social conflict fostered by the lack of a mutually intelligible language. Only a very few Inupiat spoke English, and English and Portuguese were the two most common languages of the non-Inupiats. This situation created many misunderstandings between parties bargaining over the sale price of furs or the trade value of non-Native products.

Inupiat life was circumscribed by a wide array of taboos relating to almost everything in the environment from eating habits and choices of food to when and where they would hunt and whom they could take as a spouse. The Inupiat saw the weather, the seasons, and the migratory patterns of game animals as being greatly affected by their ability to understand and observe these taboos, On the other hand, the traders and whalers as a groups saw no value in these taboos. In many instances, they went out of their way to break them and show their Inupiat companions or employees that such behavior was foolish and only interfered with their ability to get on with the business at hand, whether it was hunting, whaling, or traveling.

The Inupiat society was a complete matrix of prescribed personal relationships developed over many generations. Law ways developed around the same circumscribed matrix. There was no law enforcement personnel in Inupiat society, so order depended on adherence to traditional roles and patterns of behavior. The threat of banishment, or death were strong

deterrents. A person acted or behaved in a certain manner towards other individuals because it was prescribed through taboo or through social relations developed through generations.

While Inupiat society was capable of incorporating outsiders into this system, outsiders generally saw themselves outside of the context of Inupiat society and became disruptive by not complying with Inupiat For example, Charles Brewer recorded the first murder of a non-Native by an Inupiat when an Inupiat male killed a Portuguese whaler because he had been living with the Inupiat's spouse. Brewer indicated that had this occurred between two Inupiats, the family members would have settled the matter in their own way. The murder of a non-Native posed tremendous problems, particularly since the outcome would set an example to both the Native and non-Native community in dealing with situations where anger or hostility had been generated, Brewer and the other members of the shore whaling teams chose to deal with it in a manner compatible with their understanding of the laws of both societies, They took the offender into custody, held a trial, found him guilty, and executed him.

On another occasion where a murder had occurred, Brewer was prevented from intervening on behalf of the Inupiat community by relatives of the victim who handled the problem themselves, thereby establishing a system in which white man's law prevailed where non-Natives were involved, Inupiat law remained the sanction employed when only Inupiat where involved in a crime.

Institutional Factors

The late 1800's saw the arrival of another significant group of non-Inupiat--missionaries. Missionaries had multiple roles. Their intent was to save the souls of the Eskimos, but besides holding church services and proselytizing, they also established schools for the children, and provided medical services. In the Barrow area, for example, the Presbyterian minister was also a medical doctor.

Accompanying the missionaries, were two related institutions--schools and hospitals. The schools were first associated with missionary activities, but after the 1930's lay teachers were hired. The hospitals, originally sponsored by the Presbyterian Church, were later taken over by the Alaska Native Service. Thus, three powerful institutions from the outside world became resident and powerful within the world of the Inupiat.

Murdoch (1892) documented the chronology of the introduction of Christianity into arctic Alaska. While initially meeting with little success in converting the Inupiat, their control of clothing, food, and money, coupled with the fellowship of the church situation, began to attract the people. As the missionaries learned some of the language they were able to communicate better. The provision of medical services in conjunction with their spiritual responsibilities began to make the people more responsive to conversion.

Murdoch specifically cites the ability of the missionaries to break the apparent powerful influence of the shaman over the community. While most writers recalled this as a very positive step, it also disrupted one of the most intricate and deep-rooted area of the value system-taboos. This system not only supported the role of the shaman, it also functioned as a primary social control mechanism. Because the shaman could not effectively deal with many of the newly introduced problems, particularly disease, medical missionaries, such as Dr. Marsh, who could cope with these diseases with some degree of success, strengthened their position. This drew the Inupiat community closer to the church and away from traditional beliefs regarding illness, the spirit world, and taboos.

Sociocultural Impact of New Technology and Rate of Change

The literature clearly indicates that the Inupiat were quick to adopt technological and institutional changes from outside their culture to meet their own needs (Murdoch 1892; Milan 1964; Nelson 1969, 1974),

Inupiat involvement with the non-Native world was compressed into a short period of time, and this, coupled with their cultural adaptability, leads to a great deal of confusion regarding the actual transitional or "acculturative" status of the North Slope population. Many observers (Chance 1966; Hippier 1969; Cline 1975) have interpreted this as indicating a rapid change from traditional cultural integrity and traditional communities to a more urbanized lifestyle. They cite as evidence the

establishment of urban centers, such as Barrow, and the **outmigration** from these centers to larger cities of Alaska and the **lower** 48 states. Chance pointed to the **immigration** of **100** residents **from** the **community** of **Wain-**wright to **communities** outside the **North Slope** region as one strong indication of this trend. Hippier stated that the declining population of the villages throughout Alaska as **well** as the Arctic Slope area and the **swelling** of the **populations** In **regional** centers such as Barrow and Kotzebue indicates the same tendency.

Since 1969, however, a new phenomenon has begun, particularly On the North Slope. The population of smaller, more traditional villages is growing, and three communities, Nuiqsut, Atkasook, and Point Lay, have been resettled. This is largely due to settlement of Alaska Native land claims in late 1971, the formation of the North Slope Borough in 1972, and the population's preference for a life-style which vastly differs from that postulated as favored by the preceding authors.

The important point is not that the theories were wrong but that the suppositions did not take into account that the Inupiat were reacting to the only alternatives available to them. Schools, health care, transportation, access to other necessary supplies, and the availability of cash work were primarily centered in Barrow and, to some extent, communities outside the region. The smaller communities, Kaktovik and Wainwright, had growing populations because of the jobs that were available through the DEW Line and a conscious choice on the part of the people for a more traditional life-style,

Spencer (1959) recognized that the communities have weathered a great many economic changes as a result of their relationship to non-Inupiat institutions and pointed out that there remains a strong base of Inupiat culture that sustains them. In particular, he emphasized that the cooperative family unit maintains the

cash economy, the social organization of the aboriginal Eskimo is still the potent force. The series of benign interrelations between individual within the family setting can be made effective in promoting the cooperative effort again to live off the land should the necessity arise. To be sure, members of the group once accustomed to the advantages of the outboard motor, the washing machine, mail order luxuries and the like, may find life more burdensome if these are removed or curtailed. However, as long as mutual interdependence can be kept to the fore, it is unlikely that such deprivation will bring dire consequences with it, This point emerges more clearly, perhaps, in the analysis of the social and familial relationships.

The emerging picture of the individual, then, must be viewed as one in which control of one's life and destiny has shifted from Inupiat institutions which were well understood by all to foreign institutions of a culture outside the Inupiat sphere of knowledge,

As contact with the outside world increased after the turn of the century, particularly after the oil and gas deposits of the North Slope

became of national significance, these conflicts intensified at the interpersonal and institutional levels. Inupiat began to take control of the non-Inupiat institutions, particularly the **church**, governmental entities, economic entities, and the court system, as population grew and understanding of these institutions and the potential Inupiat role in them increased.

Until World War II, there were few outsiders who had any long-term experience in the area. The exceptions were a very small group of non-Native entrepreneurs and missionaries who generally stayed from two to five years before going to another assignment. This pattern of temporary contact between individuals probably has had the most lasting effect. Long-standing relationships have not had an opportunity to develop, and the Inupiat have ended up relating only to outside institutions over time.

<u>Increase and Diversity of Social Contacts</u>

World War 11 and its aftermath brought an increase in the number of non-Natives on the North Slope. Some came to organize and train units of the Territorial National Guard, some to explore for oil and gas in the central part of the North Slope now known as the National Petroleum Reserve-Alaska, and many more to build and operate DEW Line sites and the Naval Arctic Research Laboratory at Barrow.

Taken together, these developments have created more full-time and longterm employment opportunities in the cash labor market for Inupiat residents. As the Inupiat have developed the <code>skills</code> to compete in a construction-oriented economy, they frequently find themselves in competition with non-Natives from outside the region for these jobs. Many of these jobs allow <code>a</code> person to earn relatively <code>high</code> wages with a minimum outlay of cash, and the high profits to be made from such jobs attract many nonresident competitors. Those outsiders who secure work generally do so on the basis of past experience with a given trade or company or through experience and being considered a resident at the time when jobs are advertised or where hiring is actually being done, often Fairbanks or Anchorage. This is particularly true if a union is involved as a trade representative since only a few Inupiat have become union members and attained seniority that allows them a better chance to secure these jobs.

The immediate effect of this situation remains unexplored. One impact noted by the author is to increase the frustration at a community level when criticism of hiring practices is thwarted by the few examples of successful hiring from the community. It was recently reported by one employee of a contractor that only six of over 100 employees at an exploration staging area were Inupiat. Significantly, in a report of Alaska Native hires on the trans-Alaska pipeline project (TAPS) done by the University of Alaska, Institute of Social and Economic Research (February 1978) the North Slope area had one of the lowest hiring rates in terms of numbers and percentage of population,

This access to a relatively stable cash economy has made it possible for a number of non-Inupiat who originally came to the Arctic to work on such

projects to start small businesses, such as stores and **guiding** services, or to find stable employment within the community. **Most** of these individuals have married into the community and become part of it.

The **vast** majority of those who come to the Arctic still leave within a very short period of time and never expand their relationship with the **community** beyond economic exploitation. These transient individuals have no ties to the community and, as a group, tend to disrupt it. The areas of primary conflict involve their seeking local female companionship, their role as a source of alcohol, and drugs, and more importantly, as competition for jobs. Recently, most of the transients working in the region are isolated in camps that are far enough from communities to minimize the occurrence of disruptive situations. This was ostensibly the case when the Navy and the community of Barrow had a "gentlemen's agreement" to keep those disruptive people out of the community. The same situation held true near the community of Kaktovik, and also Wainwright during a construction phase. These gentlemen's agreements, however, are very difficult to enforce and those who view the communities as a place and a source of recreation are free to mix with the townspeople.

Resident Inupiat. Against this sketchy backdrop, we can begin to assess some trends in intergroup relations. The most important group is the resident Inupiat, who call the region "home." They have long been considered by others and themselves as experts on living in and from the arctic environment. Their right to travel the land and use it to meet

their own needs has remained unchallenged into the present century, Only in the last 30 to 40 years have they come into intensive contact with the outside world and the western institutions which characterize it, past the Inupiat relationship to these Institutions has been one of control, either through incorporating the values of the Institutions, as in the case of the church, or through maintaining a symbiotic relationship to the institutions, as is the case with both the legal system and the educational system. The passage of the Alaska Native Claims Settlement Act which created the Arctic Slope Regional Corporation was in a large part due to the strong solidarity and leadership shown by Inupiat participants in that effort. Their concern at that time was for securing to themselves the right to continue to hunt and use their own land base, and they were less concerned with the monetary aspects of that act, When major portions of the act were centered around financial provisions, the Arctic Slope voted "No", the only one of 12 organizations to do SO. This action is indicative of a desire to remain as a cultural enclave and not to become a part of the greater society through its purely economic values.

This view of themselves is severely threatened by the necessity of active participation through corporate and municipal programs recently developed in the North Slope. In large part; the formation of the regional corporation and the formation of the North Slope Borough, which occurred in 1972, may be taken as indicators of this strong sense of cultural solidarity.

Associated with the. formation of government and business entitles on the North Slope has been an influx of non-Inupiat to fill many key positions, many of them highly paid and carrying a measure of prestige in the communities. This may have done a good deal to lessen the Inupiat feeling of actually controlling activities within their own area. Many of the non-Inupiat workers filling positions within: these organizations fall within two categories yet to be discussed, non-Inupiat residents and transients.

Resident Non-Inupiat, The non-Inupiat residents are a small group who, as previously mentioned, are characterized by having made long-term commitments to the area and, in many instances, have married local people and become members of a community, Originally, most of these people came to the Arctic as part of the construction industry or the educational system or as entrepreneurs providing services. In almost every instance, these residents have positions of some influence within the community because of their business activities and personal rapport with other residents of the community. Many of these individuals have done well financially and play a large part in the supply of goods, the control of property, and the accumulation of money. None of these people has yet reached retirement age, but indications are that most feel at least a working life commitment to their communities, Due to family and economic ties within the communities, there is probably a great deal of mutuality between the Inupiat and the non-Inupiat residents.

<u>Transients.</u> Transients fall Into two major subcategories which exert quite a different Influence **in** the communities than the two preceding groups.

The first type of transient is the well-educated professional who comes to the North Slope to take a position with either the regional corporation, municipality, school district, or federal government. Many are somewhat adventurous and service oriented, and most arrive hoping to make some lasting contribution to 'the area. Others in this category are those who serve in a professional consulting capacity to the various governmental and institutional entities on the North Slope. The role of these transients in a larger urban environment would probably deserve little mention, but on the North Slope they are highly visible in the day-to-day operations and overall functioning of various organizations. While actually in residence for only a very short period of time, their impact is perceived as great by the residents and as one more element isolating them from those organizations set up for their benefit. Many in this category are relatively young, single males with no or very small families.

The second category of transients is also predominantly male and young, but with few exceptions, less educated than the first category, Most are single or divorced and are principally motivated by the high wages that are available in the region. Many of these individuals in Barrow, for example, have had serious problems with the law, poor work records, or low skill levels, which makes it difficult for them to obtain work where there is high competition for jobs, In Barrow it is relatively

easy to get a well-paying job in most skilled and unskilled trades because of high turnover and low competition, Additionally, most transients arrive on the North Slope with some contact who can provide them with a job or information or references that will lead to a job, This causes friction as it effectively locks local residents, particularly the Inupiat, out of certain sectors of the jab market,

Almost all transients seem to have one thing in common, they live in enclaves separate from the rest of the community, The most obvious examples of this in Barrow are the residents of the Naval Arctic Research Laboratory and attendant camp, the North Slope Borough School District facilities, and Indian Health Service housing. The pattern in other communities is similar.

This type of enclave system is maintained by social pressure from both the residents and the transients. Residents seem to feel that until a transient has spent a relatively lengthy period of time in the community and has demonstrated not only his willingness, but also his ability to get along in a number of social situations away from work, he will receive very little overt acceptance from them. Transients invariably tend to view the social mood of residents as hostile, Transients, government workers, school teachers, and researchers have fostered this image of the North Slope, particularly Barrow. During 1977 this general attitude spilled over into press coverage of several unfortunate indicents, which reinforced this image of hostility in the eyes of the general public cutside the North Slope. Illustrative of this problem are the following incidents:

- 7. In the fall of 1977", a representative of a state agency refused to send personnel to any of the North **Slope communities** for fear that they might be involved in **some** type **of violence.**
- 2. A Medical Specialist-refused to visit two **North Slope** communities in the fall of 1977 because on his last visit to one community, someone had thrown rocks at the house in which he was staying, and he viewed the people as being, therefore, ungrateful and hostile towards his presence.
- 3. Two professionals who had applied for positions with the North Slope Borough called and withdrew their applications, ostensibly due to a double murder which was covered in a sensational fashion by the Fairbanks News Miner and picked up by the Associated Press,
- 4. Alaska Natives, some Inupiat from the North **Slope,** reported that they were roughed up, had eggs and **debris** thrown at them and were verbally harassed in Fairbanks after this coverage.

Indications of Negative Impact

The history of contact between Inupiat and Western cultures involves several key areas of negative social impact, These will be briefly enumerated and discussed.

Al cohol and Drugs. As mentioned previously, alcohol has been considered a widespread problem in the region almost from the first contacts with the outside (Murdoch 1892; Brewer 1942; Spencer 1959; Milan 1964; Chance 1966), and alcohol abuse continues to be a major area of concern. The circular impact of alcohol is particularly destructive. Excess consumption constrains individual and group effectiveness in dealing with daily problems, which in turn inhibits participation in healthy social, economic, and family activities. This often leads to increased feelings of frustrations, hostility, and rejection and more drinking to combat "these feelings. While consensus is that alcohol is a major problem, how to deal with it is a major area of conflict.

There have been two main sources of liquor on the North Slope--Barrow
City Liquor Store and the DEW Line sites. A bar was opened in the hotel
in 1974 but was subsequently closed due to damage to the facility and
the amount of fighting that took place on or near the premises. Individuals traveling in the region often transport liquor to the smaller communities. The increase in wage employment, influx of non-Inupiat, and
the increase in travel associated with borough, regional corporation,
and construction activities have heavily contributed to an apparent increase in access to and consumption of liquor.

Drinking behavior on the North Slope seems to **follow** patterns **discussed** by **Lubart** (1971) in the Mackenzie **delta** region of the Canadian Arctic where similar social and economic conditions are impinging.

Generally speaking, drinking was begun with the express purpose of getting drunk. , . , While most subjects interviewed professed at first to drinking because of tedium, it became apparent that

motivation was far more complex than this. Many males showed anxiety about their future, and complained of tension and mild to moderate depression: They expressed bitterness toward the government, toward white men in general. . , mainly because **so** many women preferred their company. , , there were many evidences of emotional disturbances which were temporarily relieved by alcohol, . . In some instances there were outbursts of violence, sometimes temporary and controllable; at other times, markedly impulsive, assaultive, not subject at all to reason and ending in arrest, . . . Individuals involved in these incidents tended to be less euphoric and sociable when drinking, but were rather sullen, tense, irritable, surly and quarrelsome. Fights would commence on slight picayune provocation. . . In no instance. . , was there a case of assault against a white man, even though bitter feelings about them were so frequently expressed during drunkenness. Instead men assaulted Eskimo acquaintances, generally with much shame on becoming sober. . , Violence against whites occurred during the act of arrest. . , , In some instances, men who were ordinarily good-natured, hard working, gentle and good humored within daily contacts would, after a few convivial rounds of beer, suddenly burst forth in wild, assaultive, They seemed out of contact, unreachable even unprovoked vi ol ence. by close friends, and bent on a destructive course. . , .

In discussing a major aspect of inter-racial and cross-sex drinking Lubart notes that women and 'teenage girls usually obtain' liquor from men "usually native, but often white. "The goal of males was generally to provide alcohol as a means toward sexual ends."

Lubart also succinctly described at least the pattern of alcohol use across wide stretches of the Arctic.

Drinking can be disruptive **in** other ways as well. Since there are **no** accessible bars, except the Dew Line, drinking occurs in the home. This has had ill-effects beyond those stated above. Younger children are encouraged to drink via example and **if** a party **is** long, school children will be kept from completing homework, and often from getting to school on time and/or sleeping or being extremely sleepy in school,

Another impact of this is that whole households and families are often affected by violent or abusive behavior. On several occasions people have expressed feelings of extreme helplessness over this situation, yet being unwilling to involve the police. Others have stated that they find participating to be the only way to cope with such situations.

Alcohol as recreation has been discussed by **Lubart.** Several young **people** in Barrow have pointed out to the authors the lack of alternative activities: "Usually you just visit around. **It's** boring after a while. But if you wake up with a hangover, you know you-had a good time." (1976 fieldnotes)

The Department of Public Safety, in an undated Memorandum (1976), points out that most of the activities are oriented to the school gym and are accessible from after 5 p.m. to 10 p.m. only, This Memorandum suggests that rapid economic "boom" with a large influx of "outsiders" has stimulated a shock wave to the morale of the community, increasing tensions,

particularly during the winter months when the need for organized recreation is the highest:

"The limited environment, house space, and social activity within the **community** are the major constituents. . . in confining our **daily** activity. . . . **It** is obvious that **our youth** and **adults** become restless and aggressive; therefore, when they become intoxicated they tend to be violent towards the **values** and standards of **the** dominant society. That is, they become very disruptive and contemptuous towards the dominant society's technological inventions--motor vehicles, guns, the white man and public buildings"

For the transient, similar problems with alcohol arise. Frustrations regarding isolation, lack of recreation, inter-cultural conflicts and other personal problems find release through alcohol, marijuana and/or drugs. At such times, hostility towards the Inupiat seems to become a focal point of all pressures. It is not unusual to hear a white transient holding forth about Inupiat as lazy, dishonest, mentally ill or dangerously prejudiced. Such talk appears to be prompted by pre-existing prejudice and perceived tension within the community. Minimal socializing occurs between this group and the Inupiat. That which does occur is usually between young Inupiat women and white males. Some socializing with Inupiat men from work may occur but quality of relations is generally poor and characterized by mistrust and occasional violence. The general character of alcohol use is quite similar. Many transients arrive in the Arctic with serious pre-existing alcohol problems.

Teachers and other professionals are not immune from problems with alcohol. The relative isolation (teachers usually only socialize with teachers or other professionals), perceived racial tensions, and frustrations of the job often lead to alcohol Induced expressions of hostility towards the Inupiat:

"The parents don't care **enough to** support **education**, the kids are **all** extremely prejudicial against us, what can you do?"

Many teachers express resentment at the fact that they are not more overtly revered within the **community.** "My reward has been to hear 'honky' behind my back in class, and to my face in town."

Teachers in the smaller communities tend to fare somewhat better. Opportunities to become more familiar with a wider section of the community and the necessity of sharing more of the Inupiat lifeways (albeit through necessity) create a more harmonious situation, Controlling access to the school facility which is needed for meetings and activities, controlling the 2-way radio, controlling a few part-time and fulltime jobs, and having the most experience generally with the white society provide the teacher with prestige. In turn, the Inupiat generally control adequate clothing (which must be made locally), skills in securing necessities such as water, keeping snow machines running, hunting, fishing and recreation outdoors. Thus, small community relations provide more mutually beneficial contact and chances to isolate oneself become limited. (Good discussion of this is contained in Cline, 1975.)

Partially through self-sel ection and partially due to community scrutiny and enculturation, these teachers are not as susceptible to alcohol problems, personal or social.

The situation in Barrow becomes complicated at the institutional level. The city-owned liquor store produced profits of approximately \$300,000 in 1975. These funds supported the city police department, volunteer fire department, and the city offices. A subsequent move to close the liquor store, vocally supported by the administration of the North Slope Borough, was viewed by some as largely a political move to gain financial control of those city services. Police powers were soon transferred to the Borough, and a boroughwide public safety program was established after the closure of the liquor store by election in the fall of 1975,

The liquor store was opened again after an election the following year, but it was reclosed in the fall of 1977* This seesaw pattern seems to stem from the fact that a tightening in the availability of liquor produces an immediate drop in social disruptions. For example, the City and the Borough mutually agreed on a moratorium on liquor sales after a double homicide, a stabbing death, a death in a car accident, and two reported shooting and beating incidents occurred in Barrow within a few days of each other in 1977, which may explain the subsequent vote that fall to again prohibit liquor sales in the community. In 1977 13 of the 18 unnatural deaths in Barrow were alcohol related according to Department of Public Safety statistics.

Closure of the liquor **store** only means a ban on retail **sales.** Private clubs (Lion's, Veterans of Foreign **Wars**) **can** sell liquor for on-premises consumption, the **DEW** Line Bar remains open, and the PX at **NARL** sells beer to employees. Also, it is legal to mail liquor through retail outlets in Fairbanks and Anchorage to "dry" communities, A **Wien** Air Alaska employee estimated that nearly as much alcohol was being shipped to Barrow after the closure **in 1975** as before. The price of liquor varies with supply, demand, and **retail** cost, For example, the going price **for** a fifth **of Calvert's** whiskey fluctuates between \$20 and \$40 or more, This commerce is consistently conducted by a cross section of Barrow residents during "dry" periods but is only sporadic in the smaller communities except when the Barrow City Liquor Store **is** open,

Statistics related to alcohol problems are difficult to acquire. The Barrow Service Unit Hospital does not record alcohol as a cause of death or injury separate from the physical ailment involved. If a person is injured and drunk, only the injury is recorded, The exception is a diagnosis of alcoholism, but since this designation is problematic it is seldom made.

During 1967 to 1969 the Barrow Service Unit recorded no diagnoses of alcoholism. In 1974 one death due to alcoholism was recorded, Statistics on outpatient visits to the Barrow hospital may be showing a trend of increased visits due to alcohol, Alaska Consultants (1978) reported a large increase in diagnosis of acute/chronic alcoholism, and schizophrenia and other psychoses.

Figure 1

Alcohol and mental health diagnoses, percent of annual total and year for Barrow-Service Unit:

	<u> 1966</u>	<u> 1967</u>	<u>J 968</u>	<u>1974</u>	<u>1975</u>	<u>1976</u>
Al coholism Acute/Chronic	NA	NA	NA	(2%) 413	(2%) 451	(3%) 597
Accidents & Injuries	(8%) 825	(8%) 875	(8%) 8 0 2	(11%) 1,903	(13%) 2. 576	(9%) 2,215
Schizophrenis & Other Psychoses	(3%) 257*	(3%) 272*	(3%) 249*	(I%) 226	(2%) 397	(2%) 414
% Previous Year Total OPD Visits**	10,101	+1% 10,697	-1% 9, 801	+43% 17,122	+16:i 20, 462	+13% 23, 393

^{*1966-1968} The category heading is "Mental, Psychological, and Personality Disorders." This is a much more inclusive term than the 1974-1976 term.

Sources: (1) Alaska Consultants, Inc. "Baseline Studies of the Han-made

Environment" for the OCS Socioeconomic Studies Program; January

(2) J 970 Program Support Statistics, Indian Health Service, Alaska Area Native Health Service.

Minors (those under 19 years of age) are also heavily involved with alcohol, and following are a few indicators of the extent of this problem,

^{**}OPD visits are for the Barrow Service Unit which excludes two North Slope Borough communities -- Point Hope and Anaktuvuk Pass.

Figure 2

Reported Incidence of Alcohol - and Drug-Related Violation

(Department of Public Safety, North Slope Borough.)

<u>Category of Violation</u>	<u>1976</u>	<u>1977</u>
Juvenile arrests, Total	119	129
Mi nor consumi ng Al cohol	50	70
Drugs		5
Adult arrest Total		384
OMVI (drunk driving)	24	
Unnatural Death Total	44 80	18
Al cohol Related	** ##	13

Drug usage (marijuana is included for purposes of discussion) follows very much the same pattern as alcohol. The use of LSD and similar hallucinogens has declined slightly with the increase in availability of marijuana and cocaine. Amphetamines and depressants are still widely used, particularly by young people (age 18 to 25). To date, heroin use is not widespread, but there have been some disturbing reports about the results of its use.

Of all drugs (excluding nicotine and caffeine) marijuana is most widely used and available in North Slope communities. If there is a choice, It is often preferred over alcohol. The intent of use is to get "stoned" in most cases, not just "high" or "mellow". Often it is-used in conjunction with alcohol and many believe it has a calming influence on the

socially disruptive behavior often associated with alcohol use. It is highly valued as an adjunct to virtually any social occasion, especially among the young. Its use by grade school children is reportedly frequent but there are no statistics. Marijuana can be expensive, from \$30 to \$100 per ounce depending on the quality. Sources of marijuana, as with liquor, cut across ethnic and social lines.

Amphetamines, prescription medicines, and hallucinogens are used more on the basis of convenience rather than choice. However, there have been several break-ins at village health clinics, aostensibly to secure valium, antihistamines, and other medicines that can produce a "high". Amphetamines and hallucinogens seem to produce some of the same social problems as alcohol.

Heroin has occasionally been used by Inupiat youth but appears to be more prevalent among transient construction workers. One recorded episode of heroin use by residents occurred last year. Reportedly, a young man from an outlying community was partying at the hotel in Barrow and injected some other young people with either heroin or an amphetamine. This situation came to light only because two badly frightened youths showed up at the hospital, one of them badly needing treatment for what appeared to be a psychotic episode. As many as 10 youths, many of them juveniles, appear to have been involved.

Documentation of this kind of impact is scarce, but it is fair to say that these kinds of incidents as well as alcohol abuse and mental

dysfunction will increasingly recur as long as there is a wide availability of cash and a lack of integrating alternative social activities.

Family Discord and Violent Behavior. Problems within the family unit are predictable given the circumstances in North Slope communities—increased outside contact through travel; visitors; increased transient workers; more governmental interaction; and increased pressures on traditional values, social roles of Individuals, and the perceived locus of community control. Pressures in these areas usually Increase tensions within families. The following factual example is offered as a qualitative verification:

"A" is a man approximately 35 years old, He has gone to school through his junior year in high school. He is married to "B" and they have two young children. Up until 1970 "A" has worked sporadically and earned about \$4,000 annually, He has depended almost entirely upon his skill as a hunter to provide the principle meals for his family, Work has always been secondary in importance and he would often quit a job to hunt, to join a whaling crew or to" spend up to three months at a fish camp maintained by his family (parents), The products of his hunting activities have always been shared according to need or on the basis of traditional values held by his family. "B" has graduated from high school, has had some business college experience and has been sought as a worker by several institutions as clerical help with training is in short supply, "B" is considered an excellent worker, while "A"is considered erratic and

undependable although generally a capable worker,

In the year of courtship and first two years of marriage "A" and "B" got along reasonably well. Each expressed some jealousy of the other but there had been only one major argument which had led to violence. Each had struck the other and he had a black eye which everyone smiled at. In 1972, "A" took a job at a pipeline camp through an opportunity provided by a Regional Corporation, "A" made more money in six weeks than he had the previous year, "A" worked the usual 9 and 1 shift (9 weeks working at a remote camp, one week off), for nearly a year, "B" and the two infants moved to Fairbanks after several months where they had a small apartment, television and friends primarily from home. Their diet changed somewhat, television was greatly enjoyed, and for "B" there was more socializing outside the family unit and more drinking while "A" was working.

In 1974 they moved back home. During the interim, "A" had made good money, most of which was spent or given to relatives and only some of which was saved. Their move home was prompted by a series of violent episodes with "A" accusing "B' of infidelity and beating her on at least three occasions, two of which sent her to see the doctor. "B" threatened to leave him and, in fact, precipitated the move by doing so, returning home with the children. A contrite husband followed amonth later and a reconciliation took place. Upon returning home, "A" began hunting again to provide. meat and

"B" took a clerical job that paid about \$1,000 monthly. This eliminated any real need for "A" to work at all.

With the income of "B", more material things became available. Also, alcohol and marijuana were purchased occasionally for parties. "A" continued to drink frequently when he wasn't hunting. "B" began making more and more of the major decisions, pre-empting what "A" "B" often chided him about his lack of cash income, saw as his role. violent family arguments were frequent and they separated twice more in a year, except these occasions found "A" moving to another community for a month or two months before they reconciled. When drinking, "A" would frequently alternate between deep depressed silence, and abusive violent temper tantrums. He complained that they ("A" and "B") were being **sucked** into a system which had no place for them. He was angered that "B" could work steadily while he could only find work tolerable for short stretches. It galled him to take orders from taniks (white people) that he felt were uninvited to his country. He found it doubly frustrating to find that there were some that he liked. This created an ambivalence that found him alternately raging when drunk and quite hospitable when He became convinced by "B" {s success and her easy manner with taniks (especially males who are greatest in number) that she may consider running off with one of them. "A" became almost speechless when he first heard about not being allowed to hunt caribou, as this was one of his greatest joys and provided him with the basic food he and his family ate (several times a week). He resolved, without fanfare, to continue hunting. Conversation with him, when drinking or not, usually turned to this subject, Drunkenness always led to rage and any tanik around him became a target of invective, insults, taunts and occasionally blows. This happened infrequently as he seldom drank or socialized at all where there were whites-either he or they would leave. Fights between "A" and "B" became frequent. "B" would not leave him because of their families, and the attachment and loyalty to him and their children. Both sets of parents encouraged them to "work it out" and to ignore the bad times. "B" also felt that quitting work would be helpful but was fearful of losing the income since they had bills regularly for rent, utilities, store and snow machines. Both "A" and "B" felt trapped, unable to extricate themselves from their involvement in a system which they called "foreign". Both vaguely attributed all tanik presence to oil, never to the intermediary institutions. (Personal notes, 1 977)

Violence is not confined to the Inupiat. The following example, also factual, examines another North Slope life-style.

"A" is a teacher in his early 30's. He has been on the North Slope for 1½ years. He is single, very active, and a reasonably dedicated teacher. He hails from the South. At the beginning of the second year, his girl friend, "B", came to the Arctic, Both got along well with their fellow teachers, and she developed good rapport with many students, "A" did not fare so well; having an older group of

problem children, he was **frequently** frustrated, Their **socializing** consisted of frequent parties at which "A" drank heavily, as **did** some others. When "A" drank heavily he became morose and argumentative. "B" often tried to calm him down and get him to **leave** the party. On one occasion they left and "B" called the party asking for help as "A" had **gotten** his gun out, had abused and threatened her and was acting very wild. Through **deceit**, the gun was **gotten** away from him. Little more was **said** about the incident but "A" did not return the following year, though "B" stayed. (Personal notes, 1978)

Barrow teachers and **school** personnel generally socialize **within** their own group, but until very recently they **lived** primarily in enclave housing with services such as running water, flush toilets, laundry, **and** warm and **cold** storage. In 1977", teachers began occupying housing (albeit new housing) interspersed in the community. This arrangement could either intensify or ameliorate interracial tensions, but **there** are no numbers, case **counts, or** other statistics to help evaluate the situation.

Intergroup violence **is** presently on the upswing. Again without a **case-** by-case examination of magistrate records and detailed interviewing, no statistics are available. It is clear that opportunities for intergroup socializing are much more frequent than in the past, primarily because of the higher non-Inupiat population and the increased working relationships between groups at the Borough, regional and village corporations,

and construction. As mentioned previously, alcohol often releases hostile feelings among both groups, and it is not uncommon for a **fight** (or an attempt at one) to occur at a party. These instances are **almost** always quickly **halted** by mutual friends. **An** exception to this follows:

A tanik worker, new to the Arctic boasted that he would not "be intimidated by any Eskimo!" He usually carried a .22 calibre derringer attached to a belt buckle "just in case". There was general knowledge about this "Honky's" attitude and some young people made a point to antagonize him. One evening an Inupiat man was drunk and pounding and kicking his door. The tanik fired his gun through the door, hitting the other man In the foot.

There have been a few reports of guns being fired at white males, and shots have been fired through the window of the FAA station at Barrow. Another incident involved a white worker, quite drunk, firing a gun in the air and at the ground, threatening to kill all Eskimos. Such events do happen, but not with any regularity, Tragically, one exception occurred in 1977, when two hikers were shot to death near Point Barrow. A young Inupiat man has been convicted of this crime, but press coverage so sensationalized the story that severe reprecussions resulted, Among others, Native people in downtown Fairbanks were harassed, pushed, and had eggs thrown at them, and in Barrow, already strained by the event, accusations and paranoia increased.

Fortunately, most hostility is expressed through verbal baiting and a refusal to mix on the part of some within each ethnic group.

Suicide and Mental IIIness. Self-destructive behavior is another area frequently associated with social and cultural disruption. analysis of suicide and suicide attempts in the North Slope area, Schall (no date) analyzed records from 1965 to 1971, Noting that suicide is generally underreported, Schalllisted four successful suicides between 1965 and 1967 and none from 1968 to 1971. There are no easily accessible figures for 1972 to 1975, but from 1975 through 1977 there were seven known suicides. This apparent resurgence after a period of relative dormancy should not be interpreted as anything other than an indication of heightened dynamic social processes Impinging on individuals to an extreme degree. Schall found positive correlations between suicidal behavior and alcohol use at the time, loss of a loved one, high degree of Inupiat to white blood, previous suicidal behavior in the family, and low family income. R. Kraus (quoted in Schall) postulated that selfdestructive behavior is closely related to disruption of valued patterns of mutual support focused in the Inupiat nuclear family. The suicides in **Schall**'s study all indicated elements of this pattern. significant to note that again the young, ranging in age from 17 to 35, are most susceptible.

Predictably, in an area where self-destructive behavior is rated high, the indicence of psychological illness is also high (see Figure 1). In 1975 the Barrow Hospital Service Unit recorded one of the highest regional rates of hospitalization at the Alaska Psychiatric Institute in Anchorage with a total of 12 cases--a rate of 4,3/1,000 (pers.comm., Jack McCombs, Alaska Div. of Mental Health).

The rate of absenteeism from work and school is another good indicator of adjustment at both the community and individual levels. Absenteeism has been mentioned to the authors as a coping strategy for expressing embarrassment over a mistake, and also more frequently as expression of antipathy towards bosses or co-workers. Complete records of job absenteeism were unavailable except for notations that it was occasionally high especially during peak subsistence seasons. If a person had a record of absenteeism, it was most commonly either morning lateness or blocks of days. Non-Inupiats were reported to miss days sporadically. Associated with this phenomenon is high job mobility for many. The school reports chronic tardiness as a major problem and attributes it to a lack of concern for punctuality and crowded living conditions that make it difficult to get to bed early enough.

<u>Indicators of Positive Change.</u> The preceding discussion has focused principally on negative impact, Too often, positive impacts are overlooked, and areas that could **be mitigated** are not identified.

As mentioned previously, the Inupiat provided a strong segment of the support and leadership for the Alaska Native Claims Settlement Act, which was and is a source of immense pride to the majority of the people. From their ranks and with their support a strong voice of the people was heard, and their leaders have proved they can take active roles in national and state Issues.

The ability to form new organizations in response to recent events has been critical. When the people start an organization they are generally

very supportive even though they may verbally attack at points in its evolution. Through the Indian Reorganization Act governments, Arctic Slope Native Association, Arctic Slope Regional Corporation, North Slope Borough, and borough <code>school</code> district, they have been able to insure that they are capable of responding <code>to</code> each new <code>situation</code> as <code>it</code> arises. Through this variety of entities, each <code>with</code> its <code>own</code> constituency and functions, the individual is assured of a platform for his views as well as capable representatives to air those <code>views</code> beyond the sociopolitical boundaries which restrict the individual.

The "Duck In" is a good example of the solidarity and activism that can be generated against outside interference. At another level, the Inuit Circumpolar Conference demonstrated the same type of unity across national boundaries. These and similar responses may both derive from and support a feeling of autonomy and control, which often leads outsiders to label some past and present leaders as "militant" and unreasonable. No Inupiat leader need fear a lack of support when dealing with outsiders; however, there is often a good deal of political infighting at home. This has often led outside analysts to assume a highly fictionalized population, only to actually encounter a unified front.

To satisfy the need or desire for cash income no longer means moving south. Borough, regional and village corporations, and private sector jobs are more plentiful and pay better than ever before. This new economic situation has done much to encourage young people to go beyond high school and then return to the village and has also attracted many who

had left the area back. Roles with real opportunity and prestige await the Inupiat who feels challenged by this change.

These events have allowed the populace to isolate itself from many of the pressures of the outside world and carry on their traditional life-New leaders are emerging, and it is critical that they retain styles. community support while often having to work far away from the life-Many new institutional responses are in **style** they may seek to protect, process, and it is important to understand: (1) what outside or inside pressure triggers a response; (2) to what extent the response is apparently effective; and (3) to what extent individuals are able to relate to this response. Indications are that outmigration of the individual from smaller communities to larger and from the larger communities to outside the region as described by Milan (1954), Hippier (1969), and Bloom (1972) may be ending. Since 1972 there have been instances where those who had left the area returned, many to work within the new institutions. Schools through the twelfth grade now serve to keep many There is more employment, At the very least, these families together. trends indicate a new vitality In the communities.

Vigorous efforts to retain the Inupiat language may serve as another thread in the fabric which provides the Inupiat with a sense of control and participation in the emerging community,

Traditional **food** remains not just as a symbol but as an important dietary item. The role of subsistence foods is immense as it relates not only

to physical health but also to major areas of sharing and cooperation within the community. Whaling and other subsistence activities are presently threatened by international treaty and national legislation, but the Inupiat have strongly and effectively defended their rights to their traditional ways against powerful forces.

If these events are true indications of the effectiveness of the **Inupiat** in dealing with pressure from the **outside world**, it has been achieved through the strength of old and new Institutions and the Inupiat's ability to insulate themselves culturally and personally from the pace of the outside world.

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GLOSSARY

Inuit

People, **commonly** used **in** Canada and Greenland, Term currently used to designate the entire **circumpolar population** of Inupiat-Yupik Eskimo.

I nupi at

Real person; term by which the indigenous **population** designate themselves; Eskimo.

Kaktovi k

Barter Island

Karigi

Communal or ceremonial house

---miu (miut)

Post base stem added to a specific geographical region meaning inhabitant of i.e., Nuvuqmiut = Nuvuk villager

Muktuk

Whale skin with blubber.

Nal ukataq

Blanket toss. Generally refers to Captain's Feast held in the summer sponsored by whaling captains who caught whales,

Neqlik (Neglik, Nirlik)

Aboriginal trading center at the mouth of the Colville River.

Nunamiut (Nunatarmiut)

Inhabitants of land; inland people, Term by which Nunamiut designate themselves.

Nuvuk

Point Barrow

Tagiugmiut (Tareumiut)

Inhabitants of the sea; coastal people.

Tikigaq (Tigara)

Point Hope

Ugruk

Bearded seal

Umeali k

(Literally having an umiak). A rich person; whaling captain,

Umiak (umiaq)

Large skin boat.

Umialgich

Rich people. Whaling captains.

Utqkeavik

Barrow

Uuliktaq

Oliktok. Aboriginal trading site.

---vik

Post base stem meaning place, i.e., Kaktovik = seining place.

Yupi k

Southern group speaking **a** distinctive language from Inupiat; collectively classified with Inupiat in English as Eskimo,